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A corpus-based study of the use of English general extenders
spoken by Japanese users of English across speaking
proficiency levels and task types

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Declaration

This is to certify that that the work contained within has been composed by me and is entirely my own work. No part of this thesis has been submitted for any other degree or professional qualification.

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March 2014

Abstract

There is a pronounced shift in English language teaching policy in Japan with the recognition not only of the importance of spoken English and interactional competence in a globalised world, but also the need to emphasise it within English language pedagogy. Given this imperative to improve the oral communication skills of Japanese users of English (JUEs), it is vital for teachers of English to understand the cultural complexities surrounding the language, one of which is the use of vague language, which has been shown to serve both interpersonal and interactional functions in communications.

One element of English vague language is the general extender (for example, *or something*). The use of general extenders by users of English as a second language (L2) has been studied extensively. However, there is a lack of research into the use of general extenders by JUEs, and their functional differences across speaking proficiency levels and contexts. This study sought to address the knowledge gap, critically exploring the use of general extenders spoken by JUEs across speaking proficiency levels and task types.

The study drew on quantitative and qualitative corpus-based tools and methodologies using the National Institute of Information and Communications Technology Japanese Learner English Corpus (Izumi, Uchimoto, & Isahara, 2004), which contains transcriptions of a speaking test. An in-depth analysis of individual frequently-occurring general extenders was carried out across speaking proficiency levels and test tasks (description, narrative, interview and role-play) in order to reveal the frequency, and the textual and functional complexity of general extenders used by JUEs. In order to ensure the relevance of the application of the findings to the context of language education, the study also sought language teachers' beliefs on the use of general extenders by JUEs.

Three general extenders (*or something (like that)*, *and stuff*, and *and so on*) were explored due to their high frequency within the corpus. The study showed that the use of these forms differed widely across the JUEs' speaking proficiency levels and task types undertaken: *or something (like that)* is typically used in description tasks at the higher level and in interview and description tasks at the intermediate

level; *and stuff* is typical of the interview at the higher level; *and so on* of the interview at the lower-intermediate level. The study also revealed that a greater proportion of the higher level JUEs use general extenders than do those at lower levels, while those with lower speaking proficiency level who do use general extenders, do so at an high density. A qualitative exploration of concordance lines and extracts revealed a number of interpersonal and discourse-oriented functions across speaking proficiency levels: *or something (like that)* functions to show uncertainty about information or linguistic choice and helps the JUEs to hold their turn; *and stuff* serves to make the JUEs' expression emphatic; *and so on* appears to show the JUEs' lack of confidence in their language use, and signals the desire to give up their turn. The findings suggest that the use of general extenders by JUEs is multifunctional, and that this multi-functionality is linked to various elements, such as the level of language proficiency, the nature of the task, the real time processing of their speech and the power asymmetry where the time and floor are mainly managed by the examiners.

The study contributes to extending understanding of how JUEs use general extenders to convey interpersonal and discourse-oriented functions in the context of language education, in speaking tests and possibly also in classrooms, and provides new insights into the dynamics of L2 users' use of general extenders. It brings into questions the generally-held view that the use of general extenders by L2 users as a group is homogenous. The findings from this study could assist teachers to understand JUEs' intentions in their speech and to aid their speech production. More importantly, it may raise language educators' awareness of how the use of general extenders by JUEs varies across speaking proficiency levels and task types. These findings should have pedagogical implications in the context of language education, and assist teachers in improving interactional competence, in line with emerging English language teaching policy in Japan.

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Chapter 1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the study. It discusses the background and rationale, presents the research questions and provides an outline of the individual chapters which make up the thesis.

1.1 Background

1.1.1 Why study a Japanese context?

In recent years, there has been a marked shift in educational policy related to language teaching and learning in Japan. This shift reflects a concern with the need to enhance oral communication skills within English language pedagogy so as to improve the country's participation in the current international society. For instance, in primary schools, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has introduced foreign language education as one of the compulsory activities for pupils at the fifth and sixth years in 2011, in which English is recommended to be chosen in principle (MEXT, 2010). In secondary schools, MEXT has also introduced that 'classes, in principle, should be conducted in English in order to enhance the opportunities for students to be exposed to English' in upper secondary school to be implemented in 2015 (MEXT, 2009b:7). MEXT is also planning to introduce it in lower secondary schools (MEXT, 2013). At the university level, English mediated classes of subjects, other than English language classes, are already conducted in nearly 30 per cent of universities in Japan (MEXT, 2009a), which reflects the growing importance of spoken English in the academic context. Given the necessity to improve oral communication skills of Japanese users of English (henceforth JUEs), it is essential for language educators to deepen their understanding of the complexities of spoken English in the context of language education and increase their awareness of the various features of JUEs' spoken English.

1.1.2 Why study English vague language?

One of the features of spoken English is the use of English vague language, and in-depth studies of English vague language have revealed its important interpersonal and interactional functions in English discourse (Crystal & Davy, 1975; Channell, 1994; Cutting, 2000). General extenders (*or something like that, and stuff, and so on*) are examples of vague language forms (see Chapter 2 for details of spoken English grammar, English vague language and general extenders). Due to the multi-functionality of general extenders (Cheshire, 2007; Overstreet, 2011), it is expected that the use of general extenders by those who learn English as a second or foreign language (henceforth L2 users) can be one of the useful linguistic resources for language educators to interpret their interpersonal and interactional meanings in producing their speech. In the context of language education in Japan, where the interaction in English between teachers and students will increase as has been explained in the previous section, the knowledge will help language educators to interpret their students' implication and construct the discourse with them to achieve the goal of language learning and teaching. It will consequently bring about enhancing the students' oral communication skills.

L2 speakers' use of English vague language in spoken discourse has been studied by Cheng & Warren (2001), Drave (2001), Metsä-Ketelä (2006), for instance; however, there have been few studies yet, especially on JUEs' use of English vague language (see Chapter 2 for details). As Timmis (2012) points out the relatively short history of corpus-based studies of spoken English in language teaching, there have been few studies, either, linking L2 speakers' use of spoken English to the pedagogical issues. In order to fill the gap in the previous studies, it is needed to link corpus-based findings in learner corpora to pedagogical issues in the context of language education and explore the implications of the corpus-based research.

1.2 Rationale of this study

There are six elements of the rationale of this study. Firstly, due to the shift in the policy of language education in Japan as described above, a study was needed to

explore JUEs' use of vagueness and in particular the use of general extenders in order to help language educators to understand what their general extenders may signal in oral communication and to construct the discourse with them in language teaching and learning. However, there is a lack of research into the use of general extenders by JUEs to date, which will be detailed later in this section.

Secondly, with the change of English educational policy in Japan, it can be assumed that the number of speaking tests and of examinees who take speaking tests will increase. Speaking tests have their own characteristics of discourse construction, which may affect examinees' use of general extenders in the specific circumstance to show their interpersonal meanings and discourse-oriented functions. Because of this, it is useful for language educators, especially, speaking test examiners, assessors and their trainers, to deepen their understanding of how and why JUEs produce general extenders in speaking tests and of what factors would affect the occurrence of general extenders in speaking tests. For this reason, the study focuses on JUEs' use of general extenders in a speaking test. No study of JUEs' use of general extenders has been conducted in this area before.

Thirdly, previous studies have investigated language educators' beliefs about using spoken English grammar (Timmis, 2002; Goh, 2009) and the studies have argued the pedagogical implications of the findings (see Section 2.4 for details). However, no study has focused on language teachers' beliefs about using and teaching general extenders in the Japanese context. This study elicits language teachers' beliefs and then relates the corpus-based findings of JUEs' use of general extenders to pedagogical implications in the context of language education.

Fourthly, following the development of extensive studies on general extenders, ways of using English general extenders by L2 users have also been investigated by Nikula (1996), Hasselgreen (2004) and Gilquin (2008), for example (see Section 2.3 for details). Little is known about the way that JUEs use general extenders. In a rare study of JUEs' use of general extenders, Shirato and Stapleton (2007) report that no general extenders occur in their spoken texts. This study challenges this generalisation and looks in detail at JUEs spoken discourse, to find the complexity of JUEs' use of general extenders with regard to their frequency,

textual and functional features in the speaking test across levels of proficiency and contexts.

Fifthly, previous studies have generalised about L2 speakers' use of general extenders, without considering whether there is in a variety across speaking proficiency levels. However, Hasselgreen (2002:162) found that GEs occurred more frequently at the higher speaking proficiency level than at the lower speaking proficiency level, and this current study departed from the assumption that the variety across speaking proficiency levels is a complex matter.

Sixthly, studies of general extenders have tended to be of a general nature. Few studies of L2 speakers' use of general extenders have analysed how it varies according to the context. In the study of general extenders used by native speakers of English, Evison, McCarthy and O'Keeffe (2007) reveal the different frequencies across contexts due to general extenders' nature of context-dependency. It is assumed that functions of general extenders spoken by L2 users may also be context-dependent and differ across contexts, and that the nature of the speaking test and test tasks may be linked to multi-functionality of general extenders in the L2 users' use of them. In order to fill the gap from the previous studies, this study looks at four task types (description, narrative, interview and role-play) and investigates how and why general extenders vary according to the types.

1.3 Research questions

Based on the rationale above, the research questions of this study are as follows;

1. What do Japanese teachers of English think about the use of general extenders spoken by Japanese users of English (JUEs) in the context of language education?
2. How and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring general extenders in the English speaking test in the NICT JLE corpus?
 - 2.1.Are there any differences across speaking proficiency levels?
 - 2.2.Are there any differences across task types?

2.3.What are typical textual features with regard to co-occurring words and positions of the general extenders?

2.4.What are the main functions of the general extenders?

1.4 Map of this thesis

Chapter 2

This chapter reviews the literature on spoken English grammar, English vague language and general extenders, including both English and Japanese general extenders. The chapter provides a theoretical backdrop to the study and builds up the rationale that backs up the study of JUE's use of English general extenders. It also relates the insights of spoken English to pedagogical issues in the context of language education.

Chapter 3

This chapter provides an overview of the main approaches with which this study is directly concerned. It outlines corpus linguistics as a methodological approach and highlights its benefits to the current study. Next, it reviews the analytic approaches involved in the current study - genre, pragmatics and conversation analysis - and casts light on their relevance to the exploration of JUEs' use of general extenders in the study.

Chapter 4

This chapter firstly describes the data which are drawn on in this study; one is the NICT JLE Corpus (Izumi, Uchimoto, & Isahara, 2004), which is the main data-set, and the other is the interviews, which were carried out with Japanese teachers. The chapter also presents an overview of the corpus-based tools and methodologies which are being implemented in the study. It then details the process involved in generating the three most frequently-occurring general extenders (*or something (like that)*, *and stuff (like that)* and *and so on*), which are the focus of the study.

Chapter 5

This chapter presents results and findings of Japanese teachers' beliefs about JUEs' use of general extenders in the context of language education to answer the first research question 'What do Japanese teachers of English think about the use of

general extenders spoken by JUEs in the context of language education?’ It casts light on their beliefs and concerns, which rationalise the main part of this study of JUEs’ ways of using general extenders.

Chapter 6

This chapter examines JUEs’ use of *or something (like that)*, which is the most frequently occurring general extender form at the intermediate and higher levels in the corpus. It aims to answer the research question ‘how and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring general extenders in the English speaking test in the NICT JLE corpus?’ with four subsidiary research questions regarding its frequency across the levels of speaking proficiency, task types, typical textual features and functions. The corpus-based quantitative analysis is conducted to explore what generates the frequency of *or something (like that)*, as well as to investigate co-occurring words with it and its positioning in turn-taking. Next, in the corpus-based qualitative approach, its functions are investigated in concordance lines and co-text. The chapter also links the corpus-based findings to pedagogic implications.

Chapter 7

This chapter focuses on *and stuff (like that)*, which is the second most frequent occurring general extender form at the higher level in order to answer the second research question in both quantitative and qualitative approaches detailed above. The discussion builds on the results of *or something (like that)* to illustrate functional variations of general extenders used by JUEs at the higher level in the corpus. The corpus-based findings are also linked to the context of language education.

Chapter 8

This chapter looks into the use of *and so on*, the most frequently occurring general extender form at the lower level in the corpus, aiming to answer the second research question as is the same with the previous two chapters. It illustrates the impact of the levels of speaking proficiency and task types on the ways of using general extenders at the lower level in the corpus. The end of chapter considers pedagogic implications related to the corpus-based findings.

Chapter 9

This chapter firstly provides a detailed exploration of the research findings in terms of language testing and pragmatic competence and different speaking proficiency levels of pragmatic competence as regards the use of general extenders. It then discusses teachability of vague language and methodological implications in relation to the use of learner corpora.

Chapter 10

This chapter summarises the results, findings and discussions. It then suggests limitations of this study and directions for future research which could be carried out.

Chapter 2 ENGLISH VAGUE LANGUAGE: BACKGROUND

This chapter firstly reviews the literature on spoken English grammar and its relevance to general extenders in spoken English. It then provides an overview of previous studies describing features of English vague language as part of spoken English, and then narrows down its focus to general extenders, linking them to the needs of the current study. It finally provides a brief account of language educators' beliefs about addressing spoken English grammar as a subsidiary part of the study.

2.1 Spoken English Grammar

This section provides the overview of spoken English grammar put forward in the previous studies, relating its features to the use of general extenders.

Development of the study of spoken English did not really start until the late 1970s and 1980s (Carter, 1997:59). Carter argues that the reason for this delay is not only the lack of relevant technology and the difficulty in collecting spoken data, as mentioned before, but also partly because of a conception that counts informal spoken English as the representation of 'uneducated, unintelligent, or, at best, simply idiosyncratic' (1997:59) language. Informal spoken English not associated with written language has been counted as incorrect from the viewpoint of the norms of standard written language (Carter & McCarthy, 2006:167).

Owing to the development of corpus linguistics (see Section 3.1 for corpus linguistics), various features of spoken and written English that are actually used have been revealed and described (Kennedy, 1998:88). The technological developments enabling the recording of the data of spoken English has enabled researchers to obtain spoken texts and helped to advance the progress of the study of spoken English (Carter, 1997:59; Tognini-Bonelli, 2010:15). Extensive studies of spoken English grammar have been conducted, and it has been described by Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1985), Sinclair (1990), Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad and Finegan (1999) and Carter and McCarthy (2006). These studies have

contributed to describing specific features of spoken English that might otherwise be treated as peripheral in language use (Adolphs, 2008).

Various linguistic forms have been found as features of spoken English grammar, such as simple phrase structure, ellipsis, discourse markers, fillers, repetition (Biber et al., 1999; Carter & McCarthy, 2006). Amongst them, the extensive use of English vague language embedded in spoken English texts, compared to in written ones (Crystal & Davy, 1975; McCarthy & Carter, 1994; Carter & McCarthy, 1995, 2006; Carter, 1998; McCarthy, 1998; Biber et al., 1999; Cutting, 2011), is highly relevant to this study. The followings are some examples of spoken English grammar related to English vague language excerpted from Carter and McCarthy (2006):

- General extenders:

*They give you a form. You have to fill it in **and stuff**, cos if you don't you won't get an interview.* (ibid.:203)

- Approximators:

*I'll see you **around** six.* (ibid.:203)

*We're meeting seven-**ish** or maybe a bit later.* (ibid.:204)

- Hedging expressions:

*We had snowdrops but the frost **kind of** killed them **I think**.* (ibid.:224)

It is noted that formality in spoken English varies, and it affects forms of spoken English features which are preferred depending on the formality; for instance, amongst various general extender forms, *and stuff* is used in informal spoken English while *and so on* is used in formal spoken English (Overstreet & Yule, 1997b; Carter et al., 2011:538-539) (see Section 2.3).

Characteristics of spoken English which underlie the occurrence of spoken English grammar illustrated above are mainly as follows; its real-time processing and accordingly unplanned structures of speech, shared knowledge and context, less specificity embedded in speech, the interactive nature of spoken discourse and interpersonal communication (Biber et al., 1999; Leech, 2000; Carter & McCarthy,

2006). These features are related to each other to characterise grammar specific to spoken English (Leech, 2000:702).

One of the characteristics of spoken English which is related to spoken English used in speaking tests, which was looked at in the study, is that spoken texts are created under real-time processing restrictions (Brown & Yule, 1983:4-5; Biber et al., 1999; Leech, 2000; Carter & McCarthy, 2006; Hughes, 2011) and this produces specific features of spoken English grammar that are different from written ones. In speaking, time for elaborating speech in the speaker's mind is limited, so that the speech tends to be made without enough time to plan integrated and complex structures of spoken texts (Crystal & Davy, 1975:87; Chafe, 1982:37; Biber et al., 1999:1048-1049; Leech, 2000:698-700; Carter & McCarthy, 2006:168; Hughes, 2011:155). The real-time processing constraint may let a speaker choose not to provide all the information specifically but save time and energy by not producing long and complex speech in a restricted time (Biber et al., 1999:1048-1049). General extenders may partly contribute to that situation enabling a speaker to indicate that there is more information but that the hearer may know what s/he implies or at least that there is more. Additionally, a speaker may need time to plan what s/he wants to say under the real-time processing (Biber et al., 1999:1048-1049; Carter & McCarthy, 2006:168; Hughes, 2011:155), in which case, general extenders may partly function as a filler to save time in order to plan and process what s/he wants to say next. In this way, general extenders contribute to organising discourse in interactions under real-time processing restrictions. In the corpus in the current study, too, general extenders spoken by JUEs occur partly due to real-time processing and unplanned speech as part of the nature of spoken English and can be linked to a circumstance of the speaking test (see Chapter 3). Here the connection between general extenders and the characteristics of spoken English has been argued; multi-functionality of general extenders including both interpersonal and discourse-oriented functions will be argued in Section 2.3. The next section outlines English vague language, which is one of the features of spoken grammar, and explores where general extenders can sit in English vague language.

2.2 Vague Language

This section reviews the previous studies of vague language, in which general extenders are included, in order to link the complexity of its interpersonal and interactional meanings to L2 users' ways of using vagueness in the context of language education.

2.2.1 Vagueness

This section defines vagueness in this study and reviews the literature concerning its prevalence in spoken English. Vagueness has been defined in various different study areas. For instance, philosophical vagueness deals with truth or falsity on borderline cases (Williamson, 1994a) in the approaches of fuzzy logic (Williamson, 1994a, 1994b; C. Barker, 2006), epistemic theory (Williamson, 1994a, 1994b), supervaluation theory (Keefe, 2006), and contextual theory (Kyburg & Morreau, 2000; C. Barker, 2002, 2006). Another example is cognitive linguistic vagueness, which looks at the boundary of a prototype of a specific word (Ungerer & Schmid, 1996) and its context-dependency (Taylor, 1995; Cruse, 2000), derived from Rosch's (1973) argument about the degree of being typical of items in a specific category (e.g., in the category of birds, robin is more typical than eagle, and eagle is more typical than chicken). Another realm of vagueness is pragmatic vagueness, which deals with how and why a speaker uses linguistic forms which are inherently and intentionally vague, to convey interpersonal meanings (Carter & McCarthy, 2006; Channell, 1994; Cutting, 2000). Pragmatic vagueness is what this study addresses to investigate the spoken texts of JUEs. It is because the aim of this study is to explore how and why they use general extenders, one of the English vague language forms, under the research question 'how and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring GEs in the English speaking test in the NICT corpus?', in order to achieve the goal of the speaking test and to construct their spoken discourse in the context, Henceforth, pragmatic vagueness is referred to as 'vagueness' in this study.

Vagueness is counted as one of the important elements both in written and spoken language (Channell, 1990, 1994). Peirce (1902) identified saying something uncertain as part of the nature of human language. Wittgenstein (1958:34) argued

that what is needed in language is not its explicit expression or explanation but its indistinctness. As Carter and McCarthy (2006) also argue, vagueness is not a signal of reckless language usage, but 'is motivated and purposeful and is often a marker of the sensitivity and skill of a speaker' in the context where a speaker chooses to convey information in an indirect and softened manner (2006:202).

The phenomenon of vagueness is one of the essential features of spoken English in interaction (Biber et al., 1999; Carter & McCarthy, 2006). English vague language is vital in spoken English and ubiquitous in various interactional settings such as in media discourse (O'Keeffe, 2006), in nurse-patient and chaplain-patient interactions (Adolphs, Atkins, & Harvey, 2007), in British courtrooms (Cotterill, 2007), in business settings (Koester, 2007), to name but a few. In the genre of academic settings, which is relevant to this study, English vague language has also been found to occur such as in informal interactions amongst students in the same academic course (Cutting, 2000, 2007), in academic classroom discourse (Evison et al., 2007; Walsh, O'Keeffe, & McCarthy, 2008), in teacher-student interactions in mathematics classrooms (Rowland, 2007), in a setting of teacher training between trainers and trainees (Farr & O'Keeffe, 2002), in various registers of interactions in universities in the United States (Biber, 2006) amongst others. English vague language also occurs in L2 users' language such as in informal international conversation (Cheng & Warren, 2001; Cheng, 2007; Warren, 2007) and in various academic situations (Metsä-Ketelä, 2006). Cheng and Warren (2001) argue that L2 users' English vague language did not cause any communication breakdown and it may result in shared knowledge between the participants based on Sperber and Wilson's (1986) relevance theory. Metsä-Ketelä (2006:141) attributes the result to 'cooperativeness and the will to understand each other' as a role of English as a lingua franca. In the L2 language, the occurrence of English vague language may show the L2 users' skills to convey interpersonal and interactional meanings in communication in an indirect manner. This study addresses JUEs' vagueness in order to answer the research question about how and why JUEs use general extenders, which are part of English vague language. In order to have an outline of English vague language, its forms and functions in the previous studies are reviewed in the next section.

2.2.2 Forms and functions of English vague language

The argument moves on to forms and functions of English vague language respectively, before narrowing down to general extenders. With regards to defining vague language forms, there may be two arguments regarding what the vague language forms refer to; referents being implicit or explicit. One is a position that what is said in vague language is inexplicit and is not interpreted precisely (Cheng & Warren, 2003). For instance, Cheng and Warren (2003) show an extract below between a British male (B) and Hong Kong Chinese male (HKC), and argue that there is a low possibility that what is referred to by *and things like that* is precise.

- B: and there seem to be an increasing number of mainland people here er
HKC: Yes
B: I mean not not people who're obviously on business but I mean children
 and er like wives and (.) young girls *and things like that*.
(Cheng & Warren, 2003:395-396)

The other argument is that what is referred to by vague language is explicit and can be conveyed to a hearer precisely (Cutting, 2000). Cutting includes, in her English vague language model, linguistic features 'whose meaning is clear only to speakers who share the background context' (Cutting, 2007:223). In the sample extract below, a general noun *stuff* is employed, referring to the reading material for the syntax module. But what it refers to is shared between the speaker and hearer as in-group members based on their background knowledge, and can be conveyed to the hearer precisely (Cutting, 2007:226).

- You when you read over that syntax didn't it seem very simple? You know
when I first looked at it I thought what's this? I'll never get this *stuff*.
(Cutting, 2007:226)

This study of JUEs' use of general extenders does not make the distinction of general extenders' referents as being explicit or implicit. It is because it is almost impossible for an analyst to judge whether what the examinees in the speaking test imply in

general extenders is precise or not due to lack of access to the examinees' minds. The referent may be vague if it is what cannot be explained clearly in language such as the examinees' thoughts, concept, emotion, knowledge or experience. Franken argues that 'the language of thought is richer than natural languages' and that 'vagueness stems from the fact that we have ineffable concepts and that, this is notwithstanding, we want to communicate thoughts that contain such concepts' (1997:141). That is, the matter of referents' explicitness depends on the kinds of referents; concept and thought in a speaker's mind are not always explicit or expressible in language while items and entities can be. Due to the reason, this study defines English vague language forms, including general extenders, from the viewpoint of semantic meaning but not from the referents' explicitness or implicitness.

Various linguistic forms have been studied as English vague language and strategies to show a speaker's vagueness. The linguistic forms that have been studied as English vague language are likely to be categorised into two groups: one is a group in which the linguistic items include semantically and inherently vague meaning (*thing, do, or something, many*), based on Channell's (1994) definition of vague language, and the other is a group in which linguistic items are adding vagueness to speech (*sort of, may, I suppose, approximately*). Both of them are reviewed briefly because the form of general extenders serves for both. This section does not review each of the English vague language forms that have been studied to date because the purpose of this section is to explain that general extenders are part of English vague language, relevant to this study.

Firstly, one group consists of the linguistic items which include semantically and inherently vague meaning such as general nouns and general extenders. General nouns are nouns such as *thing* and *stuff* ('totally vagueness' in Crystal and Davy (1975:112)), which are 'superordinate to the other "general nouns"' such as *creature, affair* and even *person*' (Fronek, 1982:637), and 'placeholder words' such as *thingy* (Channell, 1994:157); for example, 'I can't remember. All that chemistry *stuff* is just too hard to learn' (Carter & McCarthy, 2006:149). General extenders, referred to in various different ways by different researchers (see Section 2.3.1 for details), are included in this category because they consist of general noun phrases. They are

categorised into two linguistic forms: adjunctive general extenders consisting of *and* followed by a general noun phrase (*and stuff, and things like that*), for instance ‘And then she’s got like a nice living room. It’s like table and chairs *and that kind of thing*.’ (O’Keeffe, McCarthy & Carter, 2007:179); disjunctive general extenders consisting of *or* plus a general noun phrase (*or something, or whatever*) (Overstreet & Yule, 1997a; Overstreet, 1999), for instance, ‘Why was she worried it [the bill] was going to go four ways *or something?*’ (Murphy, 2010:104).

The second group of English vague language items includes hedging expressions that are linguistic devices ‘whose meaning implicitly involves fuzziness’ (Lakoff, 1973:471) and add vagueness to what is said to soften the degree of a speaker’s assertiveness and ‘downtone the assertiveness of a segment of discourse’ (Carter & McCarthy, 2006:223). General extenders, which are focused on in this study, are included in this group, too, because while they are semantically vague as has been argued, they serve as hedging devices following specific exemplars (see Section 2.3 for details). Here a brief account is provided about hedging expressions because they are related to general extenders. Forms of English vague language as hedging expressions vary across different linguistic levels. For example, a morphemic level includes items such as *-ish* (*seven-ish*) and *-y* (*plastic(k)-y*) (Carter et al., 2011:259), word and phrasal levels include linguistic items such as *sort of* and *kind of*, (Aijmer, 1984; Brown & Levinson, 1987; Carter & McCarthy, 2006; O’Keeffe et al., 2007) lexical and syntactic levels such as modal auxiliaries *could* and *would* (Fraser, 1975; Brown & Levinson, 1987; O’Keeffe et al., 2007) and speculative verbs with first person personal pronoun such as *I suppose* and *I think* (Urmson, 1952; Prince, Frader, & Bosk, 1982; Brown & Levinson, 1987). General extenders are categorised into lexical and syntactic levels in that they have a specific linguistic form and syntactic position (see Section 2.3.1 for details), being added to what is said and making their force less assertive. These linguistic roles affect their pragmatic functions in spoken English, which is outlined next.

With regard to the pragmatic functions of English vague language, it serves as a pragmatic marker and enables a speaker to soften her/his assertiveness and to show in-group solidarity towards a hearer (Carter & McCarthy, 2006:202-203; O’Keeffe et al., 2007:176-177). Softening a speaker’s assertiveness is related to

negative politeness strategies, face-work and observing conversational maxims of quantity and quality (e.g. Channell, 1994; Overstreet, 1999; Carter & McCarthy, 2006); for example, to mitigate the force of her/his assertion to show negative politeness towards a hearer, to show a speaker's uncertainty in order to observe the conversational maxim of quality, and to avoid sounding too authoritative and to observe the conversational maxim of quantity (see Section 3.3). The use of English vague language as an in-group code has been pointed out to show solidarity towards a hearer, which is relevant to positive politeness strategies (e.g. Overstreet, 1999; Cutting, 2000; 2007; Carter & McCarthy, 2006). As has been argued, general extenders have both characteristics of English vague language: they are semantically vague and bring added vagueness to what is said. Because of this nature, general extenders need to be reviewed from both aspects in more detail, and this will be addressed in Section 2.3.

To sum up, vagueness addresses how and why a speaker presents her/his mitigation and/or intimacy towards a hearer by using vague language. English vague language forms that have been studied are categorised into semantically vague language and vague language to add vagueness, and general extenders are categorised into both. Pragmatic functions of English vague language concern politeness, face-work and conversational maxims. Functions of general extenders are reviewed more specifically in Section 2.3 in order to link the formal nature and functions.

2.3 General Extenders

This section reviews arguments in the previous studies about how general extenders, part of English vague language, are used by native speakers of English as well as L2 users of English in order to understand the complexity of general extender occurrences before exploring JUEs' use of general extenders.

2.3.1 English general extenders

The section reviews the linguistic and textual features of English general extenders, contextualises the elements of general extender occurrences in spoken

discourse, and outlines different characteristics across various general extender forms. Typical pragmatic functions of general extenders are reviewed in Section 2.3.3, together with Japanese expressions equivalent to English general extenders. Although general extenders in various languages have been studied, such as Swedish general extenders by Norrby and Winter (2002), German general extenders by Overstreet (2005) and Terraschke (2007), Brazilian Portuguese general extenders by Roth-Gordon (2007) and Persian general extenders by Parvaresh, Tavangar and Rasekh (2010), this study focuses on English general extenders, because this study looks at English general extenders spoken by JUEs.

Firstly the linguistic and textual features of English general extenders are reviewed. English general extenders are linguistic forms such as *or something* and *and so on*. It has been found that these lexical chunks occur frequently in spoken and written English, especially in spoken interactions; for example, *and things like that* occurs the 14th most frequently and *or something like that* occurs the 15th most frequently amongst all the 4-word chunks in Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English, a five-million-word corpus of naturally-occurring spoken English, mainly British and with some Irish (O’Keeffe et al., 2007:66). Due to their extensive spread in spoken discourse, many studies about general extenders have been conducted, and they have been named in many different ways: ‘tags’ (Ball & Ariel, 1978), ‘set-marking tags’ (Dines, 1980), ‘terminal tags’ (Macaulay, 1985), ‘generalized list completers’ (Jefferson, 1990), ‘extension particles’ (Dubois, 1993), ‘vague category identifiers’ (Channell, 1994), ‘coordination tags’ (Biber et al., 1999), ‘discourse extenders’ (Norrby & Winter, 2002), ‘vague categories’ (Koester, 2007), ‘vague category markers’ (Drave, 2001; O’Keeffe, 2004; Evison et al., 2007; O’Keeffe et al., 2007; Murphy, 2010) and ‘general extenders’ (Overstreet, 1999; 2005; Overstreet & Yule, 1997a; 1997b; 2001; 2002). Overstreet explains that the linguistic form is ‘general’ because it is non-specific and ‘extenders’ as it extends the clause which would otherwise grammatically complete (1999:3). This study adheres to the term ‘general extenders’ because it describes both characteristics of English vague language; being semantically vague and softening the degree of the speaker’s assertiveness, as has been argued in Section 2.2.

Some forms such as *and so on* and *or so* are exceptions of general extender forms because conjunctions are not followed by a noun but an adverb phrase, but they are regarded as members of general extenders (O’Keeffe, 2004:9). In keeping with the previous studies, this study also counts these forms as general extenders because they follow exemplars which are given as a clue for a hearer to infer what concept, thoughts or items can be implied in it.

In terms of the positions of general extenders, Dubois (1993:182) argues that general extenders at the turn-internal and turn-final positions serve to construct discourse as ‘connection markers’, ‘change-of-theme markers’ or ‘end-of-discourse markers’ respectively. General extenders signal a topic shift or transition of turn, and these features of turn-taking and discourse structure are involved in their interactional functions (Tagliamonte & Denis, 2010:343). Winter and Norrby (2000) show that nearly 66 per cent of general extenders occur immediately preceding a pause at turn-final and turn-internal positions, and conclude that their function may signal the giving up of the turn to a next speaker (2000:6). These studies illustrate that general extenders contribute to a speaker’s discourse construction. Next the characteristics of the occurrence of general extenders in the spoken discourse are argued.

The characteristics of the occurrence of general extenders are addressed in terms of referring to a category and depending on a specific context in which background and knowledge may be shared between speakers. Ball and Ariel (1978) and Dines (1980) argue that the role of general extenders is to indicate that exemplars are members of a set and have implied its general notion. Channell (1994) argues that a set of exemplars followed by general extenders refer to categories and will enable the hearer to orient to identify what the set is like in the category. In terms of categories which are referred to by exemplars in the study of general extenders, Barsalou (1983) identifies ‘ad hoc categories’ that ‘are created spontaneously for use in specialised contexts’ (1983:211) such as a category ‘things which are valuable for me’ when talking about the speaker’s life and ‘problems in the society’ when talking about current social issues. Regarding Barsalou’s ad hoc categories, Channell identifies them as ‘ways of referring to categories which do not

have names, but which do have conceptual reality (at least for the speaker)’ (1994:122).

Another characteristic of general extenders is their context-dependency. Overstreet (1999) suggests that only referring to a category is not enough to underpin the functions of general extenders that actually occur in spoken data. When it comes to the number of exemplars, for instance, Jefferson (1990) argues, in her conversation analytic study, that two exemplars precede general extenders (‘generalized list completers’ in her terminology) in order to complete the construction of lists for a specific category (ibid.:66). Overstreet (1999), however, finds that the form of one exemplar followed by a general extender is dominant in her study. She then hypothesises that the form of a general extender occurring with one exemplar can have functions other than completing the list for a specific category, because one exemplar might not be enough to make the hearer understand what the category would be (Overstreet, 1999). Instead, some categories which are referred to by exemplars and general extenders are ‘constrained by contextual factors’ (Overstreet & Yule, 1997a:87). Overstreet and Yule (1997a, 1997b) and Overstreet (1999) then suggest that general extenders are used as a pragmatic marker to appeal to intersubjectivity to a hearer, indicating “‘because we share the same knowledge, experience, and conceptual schemes, I do not need to be explicit; you will be able to supply whatever unstated understandings are required to make sense of the utterance’” (Overstreet, 1999:68). It means that general extenders are used to appeal to co-construction of discourse with the hearer resting on the contextual factors. Cheng and Warren (2003) also relate the use of general extenders to their context dependency resting on assumed shared knowledge; although the speaker and hearer may not actually share it exactly in the same way, the speaker expects the hearer to create a context based on what s/he has said (2003:381-382). These arguments indicate that general extenders serve interpersonal and interactional meanings in creating the spoken discourse and interaction between the speakers, which is highly relevant and vital to this study to answer the research question ‘how and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring GEs in the English speaking test in the NICT corpus?’

Thirdly, this section outlines different features across various general extender forms. The previous studies have revealed different uses of general extender forms in terms of frequency, textual features and functions from the genre, pragmatic and sociolinguistic viewpoints. Here, different features are outlined at the level of general extender forms, especially focusing on *or something (like that)*, *and stuff* and *and so on*, because these forms occur frequently in the corpus of JUEs' spoken English in the speaking test and are explored in this study (see Section 4.2.3 for details). The differences in frequency, typical textual features and functions are addressed respectively.

In the light of frequency, the occurrence of each general extender form differs across contexts and formality. *Or something (like that)* and *and stuff (like that)* occur frequently in informal conversations (Overstreet & Yule, 1997b:252; O'Keeffe et al., 2007:66). On the other hand, *and so on* tends to occur frequently in formal settings (Overstreet & Yule, 1997b:252; Stubbe & Holmes, 1995), in academic classroom discourse (Walsh et al., 2008) and in EU parliamentary debates (Cucchi, 2007) as well as in written English, especially academic writing (Biber et al., 1999; Carter et al., 2011). It is noted, however, that the trend described above does not mean that each general extender form is strictly constrained by the genres or text types. Across contexts under the academic genres, for instance, Biber's (2006) study reveals that *and stuff (like that)* tends to occur in the contexts of classroom teaching as well as study groups. Evison, McCarthy and O'Keeffe's (2007:146) study shows that both *and so on (and so forth)* and GE forms including *stuff* (e.g., *and stuff*, *or stuff like that*) occur with almost the same frequency in the academic classroom context. These studies show the complexity of the trend of frequency of general extenders across contexts, text types and formality. It indicates that JUEs' use of general extenders may also be affected by contexts of task types in the speaking test. It is acknowledged that the different frequencies have been found across areas (Cheshire, 2007), generations (Tagliamonte & Denis, 2010; Martínez, 2011) and sexes (Levey, 2012), but they are not addressed here because this study does not focus on them when exploring general extenders used by JUEs.

In the light of textual features, it has been found that *like*, *just* and *sort of* occur with both disjunctive and adjunctive general extender forms (Cheshire,

2007:185); however, differences between disjunctive and adjunctive general extenders have also been found. Disjunctive general extenders (*or something*) occur with other epistemic stance expressions such as *probably* and *I think* (Overstreet, 1999:115; Cheshire, 2007:185), while adjunctive general extenders (*and stuff*) occur with *kind of* and *about* (Cheshire, 2007:185). Additionally, *and everything* as one of the adjunctive general extender forms has been found to occur with *all* (Levey, 2012). These characteristics suggest different interpersonal meanings which are conveyed by each of the general extender forms. In an exploration of JUEs' use of general extenders, too, co-occurring words were looked at, and their relevance to each general extender form is argued from pragmatic viewpoints in Chapters 6, 7 and 8 respectively.

With regard to functions, Overstreet (1999) argues that disjunctive general extenders (*or something (like that)*) function to mitigate the speaker's force of assertion, to signal that the exemplar before it is an exaggeration, joke or analogy, and to show negative politeness towards a hearer in requests, invitations or offers, in order not to threaten her/his face (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They also occur to show uncertainty of information, which is associated with observing Grice's (1975) quality maxim, and to hedge a speaker's force of assertion (Overstreet, 1999). On the other hand, adjunctive general extenders (*and stuff*) indicate that there are or may be more items or concepts apart from some exemplars provided, and help a speaker to observe Grice's (1975) maxim of quantity (Overstreet, 1999). They also mark solidarity towards a hearer as one of the positive politeness strategies (Overstreet, 1999), and there may not be discernible items in the general extenders specifically (Overstreet, 1999:146).

Sometimes the distinction between adjunctive and disjunctive general extenders may not be clear-cut. Aijmer points out that 'the variation between forms has less to do with function than with the formality or informality of the text types' (2002:225). For instance, in the conference debate, *and so on* as one of the adjunctive general extender forms, functions to indicate that there are more but make a speaker's sentence economical, as well as to downtone a speaker's force of assertion (Cucchi, 2007). In this study, functions of the frequent-occurring general extenders

were explored in-depth in the concordance lines and extracts referring to the nature of task types, textual features such as co-occurring words and their positions.

As can be seen above, each general extender form has its own characteristics. It is assumed that general extenders used by JUEs may also have some characteristics specific to each form.

2.3.2 Japanese general extenders

In this section, Japanese vague language and general extenders are briefly outlined in order to show that vague language is also used as an essential linguistic item in communication in Japanese language, which is the first language of the JUEs in the corpus. It is noted that the purpose of comparing English general extenders and Japanese general extenders is not to find negative transfer or interlanguage of JUEs' ways of using general extenders because the purpose of this study is not to find fault with JUEs' use of general extenders but understand what JUEs want to indicate by using English general extenders.

Japanese vague language has been studied (Murata, 1994; Satake, 1995; Suzuki, 1995, 2008; Haga, Sasaki, & Kadokura, 1996; Maynard, 1997, 2009; Lauwereyns, 2002a; Tatiana, 2003; Jinnouchi, 2006). As in the discussion over English vague language, Japanese vague language has recently been considered essential to spoken interactions although it has been regarded in a negative manner (Lauwereyns, 2002a:239). Haga, Sasaki and Kadokura (1996:39-41) suggest that vagueness in language use should not be counted only negatively because vague language can bring about flexibility in that the extent of being precise or vague depends on the context where it is used between a speaker and a hearer; being more precise than expected would otherwise be nothing but a hindrance to communication between them. In terms of generations and Japanese vague language, Satake (1995) and Maynard (1997) link Japanese vague language with the younger generation; however, Lauwereyns (2002a) argues that the occurrence of specific vague language forms in a specific generation does not necessarily mean that the language used in the generation is vaguer than other generations; there may also be other ways of being vague in other generations. Additionally, some forms of vague language which

were originally counted as youth language have spread in the period of time regardless of generations in spoken and informal written Japanese (Maynard, 2009:88). These arguments show the prevalence of vague language in Japanese language, and this indicates that JUEs may be likely to use vague language when they speak in English partly because of this.

This section reviews Japanese vague expressions in order to show that Japanese language has linguistic items which serve interpersonal and interactional meanings similar to English general extenders. These expressions are called Japanese general extenders in this study, such as *ka nanka*, *toka*, *tari*, amongst others. This section does not explain lexical or grammatical features of each of these items firstly because this study does not aim to make a lexical or grammatical comparison between English and Japanese general extenders. Secondly it is not practical to compare grammatical forms of English and Japanese general extenders because of the difference in their grammatical structures from each other. Comparative studies of English and German general extenders, for instance, have been conducted by Overstreet (2005) and Terraschke (2007), and the constructional similarity can be seen in that both English and German general extenders consist of basically conjunction plus noun phrase, *and/or* plus noun phrase in English and *und/oder* plus noun phrase. Japanese, however, has a different grammatical structure, so that it is not practical to compare it to the grammatical structure of English general extenders. For instance, *toka* is a combination of two postpositions *to* and *ka*, and basically contains two functions: one is to list some items inexhaustibly and omit others and the other is to show uncertainty especially after hearsay (Shinmura, 1998:1901). *Toka* which has the former function is composed by *to*, a postposition to list adjunctively (Katsuki-Pestemer, 2008:98) with similar function to *and* in English, and *ka*, another postposition to list disjunctively (Katsuki-Pestemer, 2008:92) similar to *or* in English. *Toka* which has the latter function consists of a postposition *to* as a marker of content (Katsuki-Pestemer, 2008:75) and another postposition *ka* as a disjunctive listing marker. As can be seen in this grammatical description, the overall grammatical structure of Japanese is different from English, which makes it impractical to define Japanese general extenders from the perspective of linguistic form.

From the perspective of textual and functional characteristics, Japanese general extenders are defined in this study as Japanese linguistic items which occur context-dependently after one or more exemplars and are multifunctional as pragmatic markers. Japanese general extenders are similar to English general extenders in that they follow one or more exemplars (Haga, Sasaki, & Kadokura, 1996:196), and are context-dependent referring to a category or not referring to any category (Jinnouchi, 2006). For example, the similar function of referring to a category can be seen in the sample. *Ka nanka* follows one exemplar *eiga* (film), which is an ad hoc category ‘something which they would want to do on a day off’.

Kondo no yasumi wa eiga *ka nanka* ikanai.

Next P a day off P film or something why not going

[Would you like to go for a film or something on the next day off?]

(Sunagawa, Komada, Shimoda, Suzuki, Tsutsui, Hasunuma, Bekes & Morimoto, 1998:413)

*P means a particle for Japanese postpositions. (The same below)

On the other hand, Japanese general extenders do not always refer to a category, and serve as a pragmatic marker, which is similar to English general extenders, too. In the sample below, a Japanese general extender *toka* is employed following *keshigomu* (rubber), and *tari* is employed following *kari* (borrow). In this case, both *toka* and *tari* are not likely to refer to a category respectively but serve as a pragmatic function to mitigate the force of the speaker’s request ‘let me use your rubber.’

Keshigomu *toka* kari *tari* shite ii.

Rubber or something borrow do and such do okay

[Is it okay for me to sort of borrow (your) rubber or something?]

(Jinnouchi, 2006:116)

Jinnouchi (2006:115) associates the use of Japanese vague language, including Japanese general extenders, with one of the negative politeness strategies in that Japanese people tend to refrain from imposing or infringing on a hearer and to keep a

suitable distance from her/him, and insists that speech production without vague language would sound too abrupt. He then argues that a speaker's mitigation in her/his speech production can contribute to making a relaxing atmosphere (Jinnouchi, 2006).

It has been shown that the nature of Japanese general extenders is similar to English general extenders with regard to context-dependency, ad-hoc category marking, pragmatic marking, and multi-functionality. In the next section, the pragmatic functions are detailed both in English and Japanese general extenders to show that both function in similar ways to each other.

2.3.3 Typical functions of general extenders

Typical pragmatic functions of English and Japanese general extenders are listed in this section to show that Japanese general extenders function in similar ways as English general extenders and as a background to the exploration of JUEs' use of general extenders in the chapters which follow.

As has been said in the previous section, the purpose of discussing English general extenders and Japanese general extenders is not in order to find negative transfer or interlanguage of JUEs' ways of using Japanese general extenders to English general extenders from the perspective of second language acquisition because the purpose of this study is not to find what is correct or not in JUEs' use of English general extenders.

2.3.3.1 To mitigate a speaker's force of assertion

General extenders have an effect on mitigating a speaker's force of assertion (Overstreet, 1999; Cheng & Warren 2001; Drave, 2001; Adolphs et al., 2007; Cucchi, 2007). This function is in relation to Brown and Levinson's (1987) negative politeness strategies to avoid threatening the hearer's face. A speaker in the following sample seems to attempt to mitigate the negative effect of her question with *or something* showing a concern about the hearer's condition.

Ruth: you're wrecked are you? or you're not in good form *or something*?
(Murphy, 2010:103)

Japanese general extenders also function to mitigate a speaker's force of assertion: by using Japanese general extenders and making her/his speech as if being quoted by someone else, s/he can avoid sounding too assertive (Murata, 1994; Satake, 1995; Haga et al., 1996; Maynard, 1997; 2009; Lauwereyns, 2002b; Jinnouchi, 2006). Suzuki (1995), in her study of *mitai-na* occurring at the end of a speech unit, finds that *mitai-na* functions to mitigate a speaker's force of assertion. Although the speaker has her/his thoughts but does not want to be assertive, *mitai-na* functions to make what s/he said appear as if someone else has uttered it, helps the speaker to keep some distance from the content of what s/he says, and mitigates the force of her/his assertion, as in the following sample;

Aru teedo koko de wa amari mono o iitakunai na *mitai-na*.

To some extent here P P not very thing P not want to say P or something
[To some extent I don't want to say very much here, or something.]

(Suzuki, 1995:64)

2.3.3.2 To show uncertainty of information

General extenders function to show a speaker's uncertainty of the information, related to Grice's (1975:46) qualitative maxim in which a speaker is assumed to try to make her/his contribution as accurate as possible (Channell, 1994; Cheng & Warren 2001; Drave, 2001; Jucker, Smith & Lüdge, 2003; Koester, 2007; O'Keeffe et al., 2007; Terraschke & Holmes 2007). In the following interaction, *or something* seems to work to show a speaker's uncertainty about the information. Co-occurrence of *or something* with a hedging expression *I think* and an epistemic modal auxiliary verb *must* signposts Sara's lack of commitment to the accuracy of her assertion.

Poemu *toka* *nan toka* iu kissaten de au to itteimashita.
 Poem or something what or something say café P meet P said
 [(Someone) said that s/he would meet (someone) at a café called Poem or
 something.]
 (Sunagawa et al., 1998:420)

2.3.3.4 To show solidarity towards a hearer

General extenders can function to show solidarity towards a hearer, which is related to Brown and Levinson's (1987) positive politeness strategies (Cutting 2000; 2007; O'Keeffe, 2004; Evison et al., 2007; Koester, 2007; O'Keeffe et al., 2007; Terraschke & Holmes, 2007). Overstreet (1999:101) comments on *an' stuff* in the sample below as follows: Sophie, who lives in Los Angeles and is homesick for Hawai'i, is talking with Lani in Hawai'i on the phone. Sophie employs *an' stuff* following *I call the school*. It is unclear what *an' stuff* implies in it, which indicates that it does not refer to any category. *An' stuff* in this context seems to function to show solidarity towards Lani, who shares the same background and contextual knowledge regarding Hawai'i and what a nice place it is.

Sophie: 'Cause I talked to the grad division yesterday an' it's so weird,
 y'know, I call, I call the school *an' stuff* an everybody's so nice. It's
 just It almost brings tears to my eyes to talk to someone an' not have
 full-on gatekeeper syndrome, y'know, an' hhh
 (Overstreet, 1999:101)

In terms of Japanese general extenders, Lauwereyns (2002a) points out that Japanese general extenders which follow self-quotation may be one of the strategies to express their identity in the same generation and to promote and enhance their rapport. Jinnouchi (2006) argues that Japanese general extenders have an effect of showing intimacy towards a hearer while maintaining a suitable distance, not too close or too far from the speaker's perspective, to a hearer, which can help to create a relaxed ambience. In the following sample, a speaker is talking with her friend about their plan for a trip and she indicates her disagreement to the hearer. Self-quotation

followed by *toka* can mitigate the force of her objection to the hearer, reduce seriousness and, as an effect, help to establish rapport with the hearer.

Osaka yada yo *toka* itte.

Osaka (a name of a city) don't like or something say

[I go like 'I don't want to go to Osaka.']

(Lauwereyns, 2002a:254)

2.3.3.5 To make a speaker's speech emphatic

General extenders can have an effect on making a speaker's speech emphatic (Channell, 1994; Overstreet, 1999; Cutting 2000; 2007). For example, Overstreet (1999:90) and Overstreet and Yule (2001) find the formulaic pattern of *not X* (exemplar) *or anything* as a way of clarifying intention. Discourse markers *you know*, *I mean* support the clarification of K's disclaimer. Additionally considering K and C co-construct the disclaimer, co-occurring on the formula of *not X* (exemplar) *or anything*, the discourse markers, and C's cooperation affirms 'both the power of formula and the success of the disclaimer' (Overstreet & Yule, 2001:57)

K: you know I mean OK I'm sure he's *not*

C: peeping

K: peeping *or anything*

(Overstreet & Yule, 2001:57)

Suzuki finds the phrase *mitai-na* to serve as 'a discourse marker which signals that the unit it marks is a part that elaborates on a statement made in another part of the discourse.' (1995:61). In the following sample, speakers are talking about fellow students who are not like typical university students. After speaker B describes the fellow students, speaker A elaborates B's statements by finishing her/his turn with *mitai-na*, which can make A's statement sound emphatic.

B: Nani mo daigaku konakutemo ii hitotachi nan ja nai no?
 What even university even-if not-come okay people P P not aren't they
 [They are people who don't really have to come to the university, aren't they?]
 A: Daigaku (pause) fasshon shoo *mitai na*.
 University fashion show like
 [(To them,) the university is like (a stage of) a fashion show or something like that.]
 (Suzuki, 1995:61)

2.3.3.6 To make a speaker's utterance economical

General extenders may occur when a speaker tries to observe Grice's (1975) maxim of quantity and try not to give too much or too little information depending on the context (Crystal & Davy, 1975; Channell, 1994; Cheng & Warren 2001; Drave, 2001; Jucker et al., 2003; Cucchi, 2007; Koester, 2007). In the maxim, the speaker is expected to assume what information the hearer needs or does not need, and s/he can employ general extenders to indicate that there are more items to list but to avoid listing all the pieces of information which s/he assumes are not necessary to the hearer. For example, *and everything* in 'He'd have a swimming pool *and everything*' in an informal conversation between women may imply the other things that the person has but because of possible shared knowledge between participants there seems no need for the speaker to list them exhaustively (Murphy, 2010:98-99).

Japanese general extenders can also be employed when a speaker does not have to provide all the precise pieces of information for the hearer (Sunagawa et al., 1998; Lauwereyns, 2002a; 2002b). For instance, a speaker may have other kinds of alcohol apart from wine but avoid listing anymore and depends on the hearer's assumption of what can be included in the ad hoc category of types of alcohol that the speaker likes.

frequency of *or something* in her data is slightly higher at the higher level than at the lower level. The result indicates that the speaking proficiency level may impact on the occurrence of general extenders in L2 users' corpora, but no other study has been conducted across speaking proficiency levels on the use of general extenders spoken by JUEs. This study challenges the result in Shirato and Stapleton's (2007) study, and investigates the relationship between the occurrence of general extenders spoken by JUEs and their speaking proficiency levels in the JUEs' corpus of spoken English, which is larger in corpus size, than that of Shirato and Stapleton. Additionally, how and why general extenders are used by JUEs in speech production across speaking proficiency levels has not yet been addressed. It is important to deepen understanding of JUEs' vagueness by showing general extenders in the context of language education, and therefore, the study also aims to explore this.

General extender forms and their frequency in L2 corpora of spoken English have been explored. De Cock et al. (1998) point out the L2 users' overuse of *and so on*, which is typical in written English, compared to native speakers of English in informal interviews. Drave (2001) reports no occurrence of general extenders including *stuff* (*and stuff*, *and stuff like that*) in his L2 users' spoken data in the informal conversation between native British English speakers and Cantonese L2 users of English, while general extenders including a general noun *stuff* have been found to occur frequently in informal spoken English (Stubbe & Holmes, 1995; Overstreet & Yule, 1997b; Carter and McCarthy 2006). Gilquin (2008), in her study of various hesitation markers, reports that general extender forms such as *or something*, *and things*, *all that kind of thing*, occur less frequently in the French L2 users' corpus than in the native English speaker corpus. De Cock et al. (1998), Drave (2001) and Gilquin (2008) point out a possibility that the trends may partly result from L2 users' lack of familiarity and exposure to informal spoken English. While they point out the degree of L2 users' familiarity with general extenders, it would be possible that the degree of familiarity with general extenders would differ across speaking proficiency levels; however, few studies have detailed the relevance of the L2 speakers' ways of using general extenders across speaking proficiency levels and their familiarity to informal spoken English.

Functions of general extenders spoken by L2 users have been studied. Terraschke and Holmes (2007) argue that general extenders used by German L2 users function to fill a lexical gap, to show their uncertainty of what they say, to establish rapport and to reduce the degree of threatening the hearer's face. They conclude that these functions are similar to those used by New Zealand native speakers of English in their corpus. One exception they point out is German L2 users' *or so*; although it functions as a numeric approximation (Carter & McCarthy, 2006) from the viewpoint of native English speaker norms, German L2 users' *or so* functions to show uncertainty of information (Terraschke & Holmes, 2007:213). Terraschke (2007) points out that German L2 users use disjunctive general extenders (*or something*) more frequently than adjunctive general extenders (*and stuff*) in her corpus. She argues that the L2 users' preference for disjunctive general extender forms may be attributed to the context of the interaction, where the L2 participants in her study are not familiar to the interlocutor. The characteristic of disjunctive general extenders may have been preferred as face-work and politeness devices in talking to a stranger (Terraschke, 2007:157). It can be interpreted that in L2 users' use of general extenders, too, contexts impact on the occurrence of general extenders, and contextual variability needs to be taken into consideration in the study of L2 users' use of general extenders.

As for multi-functionality of general extenders in different contexts, functions of general extenders spoken by L2 users may differ. As previously indicated, the occurrence of general extenders may be affected by a specific context where they occur (Terraschke, 2007). However, no studies have detailed functional variables of general extenders spoken by L2 users across contexts such as task types, text types, the degree of shared knowledge between speakers, the degree of familiarity between speakers, goals of the communication, amongst others. The contextual elements may impact on the functions of L2 users' general extenders. In this study, task types in the speaking test were also taken into consideration when exploring functions of JUEs' use of general extenders, along with speaking proficiency levels, in order to argue what the impact of the context on the occurrence of general extenders could be and what it would indicate about the JUEs' speech in the context.

Hasselgreen (2002, 2004) investigates general extenders as part of a range of hedging devices and links the functions to creating a speaker's fluency. Hasselgreen argues that L2 users' lack of skill in using hedging devices, including general extenders, may deprive the users of opportunities to make the possible items in the category vague, and may not enable them to show an interpersonal function of showing solidarity to a hearer indicating a speaker's assumption that both the speaker and hearer share knowledge and experience (2004:210). Gilquin (2008) argues that general extenders are useful hesitation markers, and a possible multi-functionality of the markers, but reveals that there are less frequent hesitation markers including general extenders in French L2 users' spoken data compared to native English speakers' data. It can be interpreted that Hasselgreen (2002, 2004) and Gilquin (2008) expect that if L2 users' frequency of general extenders increases, more various functions would occur to contribute to interaction. However, the relevance of functional variations and L2 users' speaking proficiency levels has not been researched.

The previous studies on general extenders in native English speaker corpora have revealed that general extenders have discourse-oriented functions as has been argued in Section 2.3.1. It is assumed that L2 users' general extenders also function to construct discourse and the typical trend casts light on the L2 users' ways of using general extenders to achieve the goal of communication in a specific context. Hasselgreen (2004) reports that more than half of *or something*, which is favoured by the Norwegian L2 users, occur at turn-final position (13 out of 24 *or something* at the higher level and 9 out of 14 *or something* at the lower level) (2004:291). She argues that *or something* at the turn-final position is “‘attached to” a whole proposition, rather than to a single element’ (2004:208-209), which illustrates the function of *or something* as a hedging marker. However, the discussion of what the each position means in relation to discourse-oriented function across speaking proficiency levels and task types has not been detailed yet. Additionally, the turn-taking mechanism (see Section 3.4.3 for detail) may not be the same as in the speaking test in the NICT JLE Corpus in this study because the examinees in her study speak in pairs, not with an examiner.

To summarise, the following points are discussed to rationalise this study:

- Little is known about JUEs' use of general extenders and whether the level of speaking proficiency would affect their use.
- Typical forms of general extenders spoken by JUEs have not been found and what they would indicate in specific contexts has not been discussed.
- Functions of JUEs' use of general extenders have not been studied from the perspectives of pragmatic functions and discourse construction across speaking proficiency levels and contexts.

This study builds on the rationale above to fill the knowledge gap from the previous studies in order to find answers to the main topic of this study regarding how and why general extenders are used by JUEs, and to apply the findings to the context of language education. Next, the relevance of spoken English features, including general extenders, and language education is reviewed in order to rationalise the link of corpus-based findings to language education in the current study.

2.4 Spoken English and language education

This section reviews the relevance of spoken English grammar to language education in order to see gaps between the previous studies and the current study and considers what the study needs to do so that it can be useful to language education. Firstly it reviews the previous arguments about teaching spoken English as a backdrop to spoken English research and language education. It then moves its focus onto the previous studies of language teachers' beliefs about spoken English in order to explain why it is necessary to conduct research into teacher beliefs as a subsidiary part of the current study.

2.4.1 Arguments about teaching spoken English grammar

As features of spoken English have been revealed, implications of the corpus-based findings on spoken English grammar for language education to L2 users have been debated at the theoretical level. On the one hand, researchers have highlighted the need for teaching spoken English grammar including vague language to L2 users

of English due to the pervasiveness of spoken English grammar not only in informal but also formal genres and its distinct features from those of written English, (Crystal & Davy, 1975; Carter & McCarthy, 1995; McCarthy & Carter, 1995; Carter, 1997; Eggins & Slade, 1997; Walsh et al., 2008).

On the other hand, Cook (1998) brings into question of whether it is appropriate to regard spoken texts collected in a specific social community of native speakers of English as a 'model' of spoken English as an international language. Due to the world-wide spread of English (Crystal, 2003), fluency and intelligibility are counted as more important than conformity to native-likeness in English as a lingua franca (Graddol, 2006). In the circumstance, Prodromou (1998:267) brings into question 'how much "native-speaker reality" can the non-native speaker and the EFL classroom take?' It is necessary to relate findings of spoken English features to sociocultural and pedagogical issues in the language education. While the arguments at the theoretical level have been made, Timmis (2012) argues the necessity of research into teacher beliefs, concerning what teachers think about spoken English grammar in the context of language education. In the next section, the relevance of language teachers' beliefs and spoken English grammar is reviewed.

2.4.2 Language teachers' beliefs and spoken English grammar

As has been reviewed, the relevance of spoken English research to language education has been argued at the theoretical level. However, as the lack of surveys of teachers' beliefs about teaching speaking has been pointed out by Borg (2009:168), attitudinal studies concerning language teachers' beliefs on spoken English grammar has been limited. Due to the development of spoken English research, Timmis (2002) points out the necessity of investigating teachers' beliefs about spoken English in order to relate the corpus-based findings to the context of language education. Additionally teachers' beliefs differ across teaching contexts (Borg, 2003), which also makes it important to conduct research into teacher beliefs about spoken English grammar so that researchers can recognise various elements which constitute teachers' beliefs about spoken English (Timmis, 2012), such as their students' and

institutions' needs and aims, teaching contexts, purposes of teaching and learning English.

In the area of second language teacher education, beliefs are counted as an essential factor in teacher development and second language teachers' beliefs have been focused on for research (Borg, 2011:371). Teachers' beliefs are involved in 'what teachers know, believe and think' (Borg, 2003:81). In this study, more specifically, second language teachers' beliefs refer to what they think about the use of general extenders in spoken English from two perspectives; one is from an L2 users' view in social interaction and the other is from a language teacher's view in the context of language education. As has been mentioned in Chapter 1, it is necessary for language teachers to understand their students' intentions in their speech due to the recent shift to enhancing oral communication skills in the policy of language education in Japan, and general extenders can be a useful linguistic resource to communicate their intentions. As F. Barker (2010) argues, the usefulness of using learner corpora is that it can provide an outline of what L2 users can do with language and what the characteristics of their language use at specific language proficiency levels are. In the current study, the corpus of JUEs' speech was drawn on to investigate the use of general extenders across speaking proficiency levels, which is the main part of the study. As a subsidiary part of the study, knowing language teachers' beliefs about the use of general extenders both from L2 users' views and teachers' views was beneficial because it provided a starting point for considering how the information could be useful to language educators as an experiment in combining corpus-based findings and language education. Next, the previous studies of teacher beliefs about spoken English are reviewed.

Language teachers' beliefs about spoken English have started to be studied very recently (Timmis, 2002; Goh, 2009). In terms of L2 users' knowing general extenders, it has been found that more than 60 per cent of teachers in Timmis' (2002) study, including both native and non-native teachers of English (their nationalities are not indicated), think it important to make L2 users aware of spoken English grammar because it is authentically used in informal spoken English and L2 users should encounter it in communicating in English. In Goh's (2009) study, it is revealed that 87 per cent of Chinese teachers think it useful and important for L2

users to be aware of spoken English grammar. The results of these studies indicate that teachers are aware of spoken English grammar in authentically occurring informal interaction. In terms of L2 users' use of spoken English as productive knowledge, however, teachers' beliefs seem rather negative. With regard to the relevance of L2 users' use of spoken English grammar and their English proficiency level, Timmis (2002) and Goh (2009) have found that teachers perceive that native speakers' norm of spoken English does not have to be learned until they have learned skills and knowledge of basic and standard use of English that could be used both for speaking and writing. Japanese teachers' beliefs about JUEs' use of general extenders have not yet been clarified, and for this reason, the current study sought to investigate it.

Some language teachers' concerns about the appropriateness of using English vague language, one of the features of spoken English, in speaking tests have been reported by Goh (2009). Some language teachers perceive that spoken English grammar should not be used because these linguistic forms may be counted as incorrect and the examinees may be marked low (Goh, 2009). It can be interpreted that the degree of contextual formality seems to be one of the concerns that the teachers might have when using English vague language. This finding shows that there are some concerns remaining about dealing with spoken English grammar in the context of language education, while it is considered important to help their students to become aware of spoken English grammar that is used in informal spoken English. In terms of the current study, however, no study has been conducted involved in whether Japanese teachers are concerned about JUEs' use of general extenders in the context of language education, as the previous studies indicate. Therefore, a small scale research into teacher beliefs in the current study served to prepare for an experiment to associate corpus-based findings with language education. Its data and methodology are outlined in Section 4.1 and the results and discussions are presented in Chapter 5.

2.5 Summary

This chapter has introduced the overviews of spoken English grammar, English vague language and general extenders. The characteristics and the real time processing of spoken English correlate to the occurrence of general extenders in the speaking test. The occurrence of English vague language is characteristic of spoken English, and general extenders are part of English vague language. General extenders are essential to communicate interpersonal meanings in language. L2 users' general frequency and typical general extender forms vary across studies. Multi-functionality of general extenders in L2 users' spoken texts has also been found. However, how and why general extenders are used by L2 users has not been detailed across speaking proficiency levels or task types. There has been little study of JUEs' use of general extenders. The arguments about teachers' beliefs about teaching spoken English grammar in the context of language education have been made, but the study of teachers' beliefs about using general extenders in the educational context in Japan has not been conducted. In the next chapter, theoretical frameworks used in the study of English vague language are reviewed including corpus linguistics, genre, pragmatics and conversation analysis.

Chapter 3 ENGLISH VAGUE LANGUAGE: ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORKS

In order to answer the main research question ‘how and why do Japanese users of English (JUEs) use the most frequently-occurring GEs in the English speaking test in the NICT corpus?’, the spoken data was explored by drawing on approaches from corpus linguistics, genre analysis, pragmatics and conversation analysis. Firstly this chapter reviews previous studies of corpus linguistics and discusses its benefit to this study. Secondly, it overviews previous studies of genre analysis and casts light on the characteristics of genres of the academic context and the speaking test. The next two sections review the literature on pragmatics and conversation analysis respectively and discuss how these theories fit in to analyse the spoken data in the speaking test in this study.

3.1 Corpus Linguistics

As this study used a corpus to analyse the JUEs’ spoken data in the speaking test, this section firstly defines corpus linguistics in this study. Next it outlines different types of corpora to identify learner corpora, which this study addresses, in various corpus linguistic studies. It then explores variables and the representativeness of corpora. It ends with an outline of quantitative and qualitative approaches of corpus linguistics and links them to this study.

3.1.1 Defining corpus linguistics

Corpus linguistics is an area which addresses a set of procedures used for studying language (McEnery & Hardie, 2012:1). A corpus, a collection of spoken and written language texts which are computerised and can be analysed with analytical software (O’Keeffe et al., 2007:1), is looked at for linguistic research (see Section 4.2 for details). Corpus linguistics enables researchers to observe real samples of spoken or written language data, owing to the development of computational data collection and analysis (McCarthy & O’Keeffe, 2010) and of

recorders to collect spoken texts easily as for corpora of spoken language (Tognini-Bonelli, 2010:16). To see real sample texts is useful as evidence of how language is actually used and as a source of investigation. Examining real examples of spoken language as evidence with all the features generating them (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975:2) is a useful method to reveal and understand how language is used.

As has been said at the beginning, the current study counts corpus linguistics as a methodology. Tognini-Bonelli (2001) explicates ‘although corpus linguistics belongs to the sphere of applied linguistics, it differs from other partner disciplines under the same umbrella’ (2001:1) from the disciplinary viewpoint. However, other researchers, Johansson (1991), Stubbs (1996), Biber, Conrad and Reppen (1998), Hunston (2002), amongst others, do not consider corpus linguistics as in the same category of applied linguistics but count it as a methodology for language analysis. McEnery, Xiao and Tono (2006:7) maintain that corpus linguistics is not an independent branch of linguistics such as phonetics, syntax or pragmatics in that corpus linguistics is not a study of a certain aspect of a linguistic feature but it can be employed to investigate various areas of linguistic study.

Cheng argues that the view of corpus linguistics as a theory or methodology affects the approach taken in each study using a corpus (Cheng, 2012:6). In corpus linguistics as a theory, the purpose of using a corpus is to find some characteristics specific to the data, and to attempt to build their theory or hypothesis by analysing the corpus data (Cheng, 2012:6), which is the hypothesis-finding approach (Granger, 1998). In terms of L2 users’ language study, the L2 users’ corpora data is investigated to find patterns of language use specific to the L2 users’ group, to build the hypothesis of their language (Barlow, 2005:344). This approach to corpus linguistics is corpus-driven (Tognini-Bonelli, 2001; Barlow, 2005:344; Cheng, 2012:6). In corpus linguistics as a methodology, on the other hand, the purpose of using a corpus is to examine whether existing theories are relevant to the texts in the corpus (Cheng, 2012:6), driven by hypotheses (Granger, 1998). The data in the corpus is accounted as evidence (Cheng, 2012:6). In corpus linguistics of L2 users’ language study, the data is the source for examining specific hypotheses of L2 users’ language in the data group ‘generated through introspection, theories of second language acquisition, or as a result of the analysis of experimental or other non-

corpus-based sources of data' (Barlow, 2005:344). This approach to corpus linguistics is corpus-based (Barlow, 2005:344; Cheng, 2012:6).

However, as corpus data is looked at based on question sets, it is impractical to examine language use in a corpus without any preconception (McEnery & Hardie, 2012:161). In research areas such as pragmatics, sociolinguistics, genre studies and second language acquisition, amongst others, questions are set and its computational analysis serves to answer the questions easier than analysis by hand would do (McCarthy & O'Keeffe, 2010:7). As has been argued, corpus linguistics serves as 'new techniques of observation', allowing researchers to observe linguistic features, discover trends and patterns of language (Stubbs, 1996:231-232), and corpus linguistics as a methodology can also describe the linguistic features of L2 users in a large amount of data, as Reppen (2006:249) points out. The current study has a research question 'how and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring GEs in the English speaking test in the NICT corpus?' derived from the previous research findings, which means that the current study is conducted with a hypothesis. In the current study, corpus linguistics is helpful as a methodology to describe the linguistic features in a large amount of JUEs' spoken data in the approaches of genre study, pragmatics and conversation analysis. How corpus linguistics fits in to this study is detailed in Section 3.1.4.

A limitation of corpus linguistics is that it does not reveal interpersonal and interactional meanings of the language in itself. Cook argues that a corpus presents texts produced by a speaker but does not show his/her process of producing it (Cook, 1998:58-59). O'Keeffe, McCarthy and Carter also point out that a corpus is not what provides corpus users with the meaning of a word or phrase, but that it provides them with a lot of examples which help her/him to deduce what the word/phrase means or implies (2007:3). In this study, corpus linguistics does not show functional interpretation of general extenders, but it provides sample texts of and around general extenders so that the author can see in what context general extenders occur by looking at co-occurring words and where in the discourse they occur by looking at their positions, and can build up the argument of functions of general extenders (see Sections 3.3.4 and 3.4.4).

3.1.2 Corpus types

This section outlines various kinds of corpora including L2 user corpora, which this study deals with. Texts in corpora are compiled based on its set criteria so that it can represent how the language is used in the specific group (O’Keeffe et al., 2007:1). In other words, a collection of miscellaneous texts without any set criteria is not regarded as a corpus (Cheng, 2012:1). According to the set criteria, various kinds of corpora exist across mode (spoken or written language), type (books, presentations), domain (academic, casual), language or language varieties (Irish, New Zealand English), the location (in UK, USA), the period of time (in 1950s, 2000s) (Cheng, 2012:31). For example, corpora which consist of various types of texts are called general corpora, and they are large with billions of words (O’Keeffe, Clancy, & Adolphs, 2011:7). Examples of general corpora include the Cambridge English Corpus¹, which is composed of 7 billion words of written and spoken English from various sources such as newspapers and conversations. Corpora which compile texts in a particular type with less than one million words are called specialised corpora (O’Keeffe et al., 2011:7). There are many different kinds of specialised corpora; for instance, the Limerick and Belfast Corpus of Spoken Academic Discourse (LIBEL)², which consists of 500,000 words of academic discourse collected in Ireland; and English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings (ELFA)³ corpus, which include spoken English texts by speakers from 51 different first language backgrounds in various different academic contexts. Another example of specialised corpora is the learner corpora, which is looked at in this study and outlined below.

The importance of exploring L2 users’ language has been recognised and corpora of spoken and written English used by people whose mother tongue is not English have appeared widespread in the early 1990s (Granger, 1998:4). Learner corpora contribute to picturing what L2 users can do with language and how they use language at specific language proficiency levels (F. Barker, 2010).

¹ See Cambridge English Corpus

http://www.cambridge.org/de/elt/catalogue/subject/item2701617/Cambridge-English-Corpus/?site_locale=de_DE

² See Inter-Varietal Applied Corpus Studies (IVACS) <http://www.ivacs.mic.ul.ie/corpora/>

³ See the ELFA project <http://www.helsinki.fi/englanti/elfa/elfacorporus.html#corpus>

Various projects have been launched, amongst which the following are some examples. The Longman Learners' Corpus⁴ is composed of 10 million words of written English by learners of English. The Cambridge Learner Corpus⁵ is a collection of over 200,000 exam scripts written in English by learners of English taking Cambridge English exams, including Cambridge English Key and International English Language Testing System (IELTS). The International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE)⁶ comprises 2.5 million words of written English by EFL, and is subcategorised in L2 users' mother tongues (Granger, 1998, 2003). Louvain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage (LINDSEI)⁷ contains in total over one million words collected in interviews with three tasks (talk about a set topic, talk-exchange about the topic with an interviewer, narrative of a series of pictures), of which 800,000 words were produced by L2 users, and consists of 11 subcorpora of different mother tongues of English as a foreign language learners (Gilquin, De Cock & Granger, 2010). Characteristics of L2 users' corpora with regard to their various elements and representativeness are argued in Section 3.1.3.

Corpora of JUEs have been established: the LINDSEI corpus mentioned above includes sub-corpora of Japanese users of English, and, for example, the National Institute of Information and Communications Technology Japanese Learner English (NICT JLE) Corpus⁸ (Izumi, Uchimoto & Isahara, 2004), which the current study uses, comprises 1.3 million words spoken by JUEs in a fifteen-minute speaking test to assess functional speaking skills of English in general (Alc Press Inc., 2012b) (see Section 4.2 for details). In terms of written corpora, the Japanese EFL Learner (JEFL) Corpus⁹ (Tono, 2007) consists of written argumentative or narrative texts composed by 10,000 Japanese secondary school students. These corpora contribute to exploring JUEs' ways of using English: emotional words and expressions in the LINDSEI sub-corpora have been compared with those in native English speaker

⁴ See the Longman Learners' Corpus <http://www.longmandictionariesusa.com/longman/corpus>

⁵ See Cambridge Learner Corpus http://www.cambridge.org/gb/elt/catalogue/subject/custom/item3646603/Cambridge-English-Corpus-Cambridge-Learner-Corpus/?site_locale=en_GB

⁶ See the International Corpus of Learner English <http://www.uclouvain.be/en-cecl-icle.html>

⁷ See Louvain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage <http://www.uclouvain.be/en-cecl-lindsei.html>

⁸ See the National Institute of Information and Communications Technology Japanese Learner English (NICT JLE) Corpus https://alaginrc.nict.go.jp/nict_jle/index_E.html

⁹ See the Japanese EFL Learner (JEFL) Corpus Project <http://jeffl.corpuscobo.net/>

corpora; London-Lund Corpus and Wellington Corpus of Spoken New Zealand English (Kaneko, Kobayashi, & Takami, 2006). JUEs' linguistic features at different speaking proficiency levels in the NICT Corpus have been investigated: contrastive analysis of JUEs' grammatical error in speaking and writing at different proficiency levels (Abe, 2003; Abe & Tono, 2005), vocabulary produced in speaking by JUEs at different proficiency levels (Tono, 2004b), JUEs' speech act of requesting at different proficiency levels (Kaneko, 2004). The JEFLL corpus has been used to explore JUEs' typical sub-categorisation frame patterns of frequently occurring verbs (Tono, 2004a). The development of JUE corpora has contributed to revealing trends of their ways of using English, but no light has been shed on their ways of using general extenders in their speech production at different levels of speaking proficiency and task types.

Next, the issue of representativeness of learner corpora is explored.

3.1.3 Representativeness of learner corpora

Various elements which constitute the data in a corpus and the representativeness of the findings in it are one of the issues when using corpus linguistics. In terms of L2 user corpora, Granger (2004:125) highlights that a corpus is not a miscellaneous collection of L2 users' texts and that strictly designed corpora make the data analysis reliable. However, she points out that 'there are so many variables that influence learner output that one cannot realistically expect ready-made learner corpora to contain all the variables which one may want to control' (Granger, 2004:126). In tandem with the second one, Leech insists that corpus data may include 'hidden variables', such as cultural and educational factors (1998:xix). Granger lists L2 users' variable features in a corpus such as the learning contexts, learning English as a second language or a foreign language, as well as other 'practical experience' aspects including the English language teaching materials used, the period of time using English or exposed in English-speaking circumstances, and highlights that all of these affect L2 users' output (1998:9). These are indeed related to the NICT JLE Corpus, which includes spoken texts produced by JUEs at various different levels of speaking proficiency; the JUEs in the corpus may vary with regard

to where and how they have learned English and from whom they have learned English, for example, English variables (English spoken in Britain, Australia, Ireland, US, etc.; English spoken by young, middle-aged or older generations; English spoken by males or females) and materials with which they have learned English (English textbooks, news programmes, songs, books, conversations in English, email in English, etc.). The NICT JLE corpus does not provide all the aspects of JUEs variables as listed above; however, it is designed so that corpus users can look at the data across speaking proficiency levels as one of their variables. It meets this study's need to investigate JUEs' ways of using general extenders to convey their interpersonal and interactional meanings across speaking proficiency levels (see Section 4.2 for details of the corpus).

The variables of L2 users in corpora bring about an issue concerning to what extent the findings represent the corpus. Harrington (2008) raises an issue, saying 'grouping individuals together can give some idea about patterns, but can also disguise interesting individual variation' (2008:97). This can be said of L2 user corpora, as Durrant and Schmitt (2009:168) argue that 'taking each text as an individual case' could avoid misleading results. In order to avoid misleading results, it is useful in corpus linguistics to break down the generalised findings into different sub-groups and in each of the participants' spoken texts in order to postulate possible explanations of the prevalence of a specific language use within the data set (Harrington, 2008). The current corpus-based research also stratified the whole corpus data into groups of speaking proficiency levels and task types, and looked at each text of the examinees who used general extenders in order to identify the causes of the statistical findings. The stratification of the data revealed the complexity of data attributed to individual variations in the corpus in this study, too, and revealed the degree of representativeness of the findings of the frequently-occurring general extenders in the corpus (see Chapters 6, 7 and 8).

3.1.4 Quantitative and qualitative approaches of corpus linguistics

This section outlines quantitative and qualitative approaches of corpus linguistics and relates the approaches to this study (see Section 4.2.2 for corpus analysis tools). Corpus linguistics can provide researchers with both quantitative and qualitative approaches to analysing linguistic features in the collection of texts (Biber et al., 1998; Hunston, 2002:35-36; O'Keeffe et al., 2007:2). The quantitative approach in corpus linguistics is taken to investigate how many times each word or multi-word cluster occurs in a corpus (O'Keeffe et al., 2007:2). In this study, for example, the quantitative approach enabled the author to identify how many times each general extender form occurs. This result enabled the author to make a comparison amongst the levels of speaking proficiency and task types. The quantitative approach was also drawn on when identifying what words occur frequently with a specific general extender form and where in speakers' turn the general extender appears. These conclusions provided initial settings for qualitative analyses of the JUEs' use of the general extenders.

The qualitative approach in corpus linguistics is taken to look at the way a specific linguistic feature is used (O'Keeffe et al., 2007:2), e.g. in what context a specific feature of language occurs and what its function is. In this study, why general extenders were used in specific contexts was explored in the qualitative approach. Looking at contexts facilitated the conducting of qualitative analysis of functions of general extenders. The qualitative analysis built on the quantitative patterns beyond the frequency of general extenders across the levels of speaking proficiency or tasks from the viewpoints of genre, pragmatics and conversation analysis, which will be outlined respectively in the sections below.

3.2 Genre Analysis

Genre analysis is one of the approaches to institutional discourse study (Flowerdew, 2013). The approach is employed in the current study to investigate the impact of the genre of institutional discourse, specifically the speaking test in the corpus, on the use of general extenders spoken by JUE. This section firstly defines

the genre approach. It then argues the usefulness of genre to the analysis of institutional discourse. Finally it highlights the usefulness of considering the speaking test, which is dealt with in the current study, as a type of institutional discourse.

3.2.1 Defining genres

Genre is conceptualised as ‘different communicative events which are associated with particular settings and which have recognised structures and communicative functions’ (Flowerdew, 2013:138). The structures are not characterised by one specific communicative event or purpose (Swales, 2004; O’Keeffe, 2006; Flowerdew, 2013). The genre studies have shown characteristics of institutional discourse, examples of which are radio phone-ins (O’Keeffe, 2006), office environments (Koester, 2006), healthcare phone-ins (Adolphs et al., 2007), courtrooms (Cotterill, 2007) and classrooms (Walsh, 2006), amongst others. Although these researchers might not regard themselves as genre analysts as such, these studies have shown the relevance of typical forms of discourse and multiple purposes in interaction. The current study built on the genre framework firstly because the speaking test dealt with in the study could be regarded as a type of institutional event with characteristic structures shared by examiners and examinees serving interactive functions; and secondly because the specific setting of examiners and examinees most likely impacted on the examinees’ use of general extenders as part of this institutional discourse. The usefulness of genre to the analysis of institutional discourse is explained in the next section.

3.2.2 The usefulness of genre to the analysis of institutional discourse

The genre perspective has identified the typical institutional discourse structure. Investigating what constitutes the institutional discourse of language education can be a way of understanding how the interaction for language teaching and learning is handled and accomplished (Seedhouse, 1996:22). In terms of classroom discourse, studies have been conducted in various settings; an

investigation of classroom exchanges between a teacher and students (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), teacher talk regarding discourse and intonation in classroom contexts (Sinclair & Brazil, 1982), tutor-student spoken interaction at university seminars (Walsh et al., 2008; Walsh & O’Keeffe, 2010; Evison, 2013), individual tutorial interaction between tutors and postgraduate students at university (Farr, 2003), amongst others. They may not classify themselves as genre analysts, preferring to see themselves as researchers of exchange theory or conversation analysis for example, but their investigation of the characteristics of the institutional discourse do highlight features of the genres in question. In the academic classroom discourse at university, Walsh, O’Keeffe and McCarthy (2008:27) argue that although meaning making and understanding of a specific language use are co-constructed by a teacher and students through the participation of both of them, it is the teacher who is responsible for the construction. Evison (2013) also argues that the investigation of tutors’ turn-opening items reveals the asymmetric power role between a tutor and students in the context of education. In a second language classroom context, Walsh (2006:5) argues that ‘teachers control both the topic of conversation and turn-taking’ in second language classroom discourse. As the previous studies have shown, the power asymmetry in the roles of ‘expert and novice’ (Evison, 2013:6) and the interactional form of discourse specific to classrooms can be identified from the genre perspective. Power asymmetry also exists between examiners and examinees in speaking test discourse (Young, 2002; Luk, 2010), which is the focus of investigation of the current study.

Genre analysis is useful to the current study. In order to understand the examinees’ intentions when using English vague language, how the power asymmetry and the goal-orientedness in the speaking test discourse could impact on the examinees’ way of using English general extenders is of interest from the genre analytic perspective. The speaking test discourse is detailed in the next section and the usefulness of considering speaking tests as a type of institutional discourse along with the classroom discourse.

3.2.3 The usefulness of considering speaking tests to be institutional discourse

In relation to the nature of institutional discourse argued above, the current study counts the discourse of the speaking test as an institutional variety of discourse, in which the participants establish the system of speech exchange that would suit the institutional purposes (Seedhouse, 1996: 23). This section firstly reviews previous studies and outlines what constitutes the discourse of speaking tests, which is the focus of investigation in the current study. It then argues the usefulness of considering speaking tests to be institutional discourse from the genre perspective.

Speaking tests as institutional discourse are characterised by their goal-orientedness and typical interactional form (van Lier, 1989; He & Young, 1998; Lazaraton, 2002; Young, 2011). The goal of examiners and examinees in the speaking test seems to have an influence on the construction of their discourse. The primary goal of language tests in general is ‘to measure a latent trait in order to make inferences about an individual’s language ability’ (F. Barker, 2010). As van Lier (1989:501) highlights, the emphasis of the oral proficiency interview test is not to make a successful conversation but to retrieve language from examinees successfully. Seedhouse (2012:7) further argues that the purpose of interaction between an examiner and examinee in a speaking test is to establish valid assessment of speaking proficiency. The same can be said of the spoken data in the NICT JLE Corpus, which is used in the current study: The interaction between an examiner and examinee is oriented to the same goal of assessment in the speaking test.

In light of the roles of the examiner and examinee in the speaking test, they are different: the examiners’ role is to give tasks to the examinee to produce speech and manage the time and floor in the speaking test slot, while the examinees’ role is to produce as much speech as possible to pass the test or gain higher scores. The power to manage the interaction is asymmetric and it affects the discourse construction to achieve the institutional goal (He & Young, 1998). The examiner has a plan regarding what to do in the speaking test and conducts and manages the interview according to the plan (van Lier, 1989:496). In the plan, the discourse of speaking tests are characterised as the one-sided form of examiner’s question and examinee’s response (Young, 2002). This illustrates that an examiner has a

responsibility for the floor management, beginning and ending the interaction (Silverman, 1976:144; van Lier, 1989:498) and going through all the tasks according to the examinee's speed and amount of speech production. As Young (2002) and Luk (2010) point out, while an examiner selects the examinee as a next speaker, an examinee does not allocate the examiner as a next speaker in the discourse of speaking tests. It can be said that the power asymmetry between an examiner and examinee impacts on the distinctive discourse of speaking tests. In the current study, however, some of the examinees' general extenders in the NICT JLE Corpus occurred at the end of their turn, which is detailed in Chapters 6 to 8. In order to investigate the contribution of the examinees' use of general extenders to the discourse construction, the genre analytic framework was useful to the current corpus-based study.

As has been mentioned, the speaking test discourse is counted in the current study as one of the academic institutional discourse varieties because it includes similar characteristics to those of the classroom discourse, namely the asymmetric power roles and purposes of interaction. Firstly, the asymmetric power roles exist to construct the discourse both in the classroom discourse between a teacher and student (Walsh, 2006; Evison, 2013) and between an examiner and examinee in the speaking test discourse (He & Young, 1998). In each of the contexts, the teacher and examiner manage the time and floor to achieve purposes in the discourse, and the roles bear on constructing the institutional discourse.

Secondly, both of the discourses constitute not only one but various purposes of interaction depending on specific contexts. For example, a teacher's discourse includes purposes of enhancing students' participation and giving direction on what to do in the classroom context (Walsh, 2006). These purposes can also be associated with constructing an examiner's discourse in the speaking test when, for example, encouraging an examinee to speak in order to obtain enough speech sample and giving direction on the next task. Additionally, similar types of tasks and activities such as question-response, role-play, presentation and description can be conducted both in the classroom and speaking test. Due to the similar task types, the classroom discourse and speaking test may encompass similar purposes of interaction between a teacher and student or an examiner and examinee. As reviewed previously in Section

3.2.1, a genre cannot be defined merely by one communicative event or purpose (Flowerdew, 2013:139): these purposes are flexible and pertinent to both discourses of the classroom and the speaking test. The discourse of the speaking test in the current study, too, constituted various purposes of interaction across task types, which can be said to be similar to the classroom context.

It may be true that there are differences in discourse between the classroom and the speaking test, such as the degree of familiarity between participants (teacher-student, examiner-examinee) and the way of assessing students' or examinees' production, noting that ideally a classroom interaction is not assessed, as it is related to learning, unless of course we are talking about classroom-based assessment. However, the current study considers the speaking test discourse as part of academic institutional discourse along with the classroom discourse, because of the power differences between participants and the various purposes in the discourse. The genre analytic perspective of academic institutional discourse is useful when investigating the impact of the examinees' roles and different interactional purposes on their use of general extenders in the spoken data by Japanese users of English in the speaking test corpus. The findings of the current study are provided and discussed in Chapters 6 to 8.

3.3 Pragmatics

In this corpus-based study, linguistic features of general extenders are addressed in the pragmatic approach to answer the research question 'what are the main functions of the general extenders?' in the speaking test. This section firstly provides the definition of pragmatics in this study. Secondly it outlines Grice's (1975) theory of quantity and quality maxims in his cooperative principle and Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of positive and negative politeness because they are partly related to functions of general extenders (Channell, 1994; Overstreet, 1999). It links the theories to functions of general extenders respectively. It ends by arguing the benefit of corpus linguistics to pragmatic study.

3.3.1 Defining pragmatics

This section defines pragmatics in this study because firstly it is related to theorising the approach to functions of general extenders reviewed in Section 2.3 and secondly it provides a framework for the functional exploration of general extenders in the corpus.

Pragmatics is the study of what a speaker (or writer) means beyond the semantic level by what s/he says (or writes) in a particular context such as who to speak to, how close a hearer (or reader) is to her/him, how much experience they share, when, where and in what situations (Yule 1996:3). Thomas considers pragmatics as ‘meaning in interaction’, and explains that the meaning of what is said is produced in a dynamic process between a speaker and a hearer depending on the context where they are (Thomas 1995:22). The context surrounding the participants is the key to creating meaning from what is said (Rühlemann, 2010:288).

In the light of the pragmatic study focusing on L2 users, Kasper and Rose (2001) pay more of their attention to L2 users as producers of a target language, and focus on how they ‘accomplish goals as social actors who do not just need to get things done but must attend to their interpersonal relationships with other participants at the same time’ (2001:2). Focusing on a speaker rather than on a hearer, Crystal (2008) defines pragmatics as ‘the study of language from the point of view of the users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction, and the effects their use of language has on the other participants in an act of communication’ (2008:379).

This study holds his definition because its focus lies on the use of general extenders by the Japanese examinees as speakers, and its purpose is to explore why they use general extenders and what their general extenders signal in the interaction with the examiners in the speaking test. Crystal’s (2008) definition is useful to answer the research question ‘what are the main functions of the general extenders?’ spoken by the JUEs in the speaking test, including their signals, and the effects and constraints they can bring about to achieve their goal of taking the speaking test in interaction with the examiners. Next, two main pragmatic theories describing functions of general extenders are reviewed; one is Grice’s (1975) maxims of quality and quantity and the other is Brown and Levinson’s (1987) politeness theory.

3.3.2 Cooperative principle

This section outlines Grice's (1975) maxims of quality and quantity in his cooperative principle because the framework is used partly in the functional analysis of general extenders in this study. Also, the relevance of the theory and functions of general extenders is presented in sample texts.

Grice (1975) argued that communication is achieved when a hearer can recognise the speaker's intention in her/his speech: a hearer uses various knowledge s/he has, such as social, cultural, background knowledge in order to infer what information the speaker could have attempted to convey in her/his speech, which makes the communication between them successful. The reason why the hearer can choose the relevant recognition of the speaker's intention amongst various possibilities is, Grice (1975) insisted, that there is a commitment between the participants that a speaker is expected to make what s/he says suitable to the context of interaction. Grice (1975) called it the cooperative principle, in that participants are 'expected to make their conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged' (1975:45). Four maxims which consist of the cooperative principle are the Maxim of Quantity, in which a speaker's contribution in interactions is expected to be 'as informative as is required' and not to be 'more informative than is required'; the Maxim of Quality, in which a speaker's contribution is expected not to include what s/he believes to be false and what s/he supposes is 'lack of adequate evidence'; the Maxim of Relation, that is, a speaker's contribution is expected to be relevant; and the Maxim of Manner, that is, a speaker's contribution is expected not to be obscure or ambiguous and to be brief and orderly (Grice, 1975:45-46). Of relevance to this study of general extenders are the first two maxims; a speaker's observation of the quality and quantity maxims, examples of which can be seen respectively below.

Overstreet (1999:148-150) points out that the quantity maxim is related to general extenders. In the following sample, for instance, a speaker is suggesting her idea about how they arrange their return from a hiking and camping trip, and *an' stuff* is employed after enumerating *our clothes* and *tents*.

We'll get an early start, an' I was thinking if we wanted to bring in the cooler, we could, an' have it – each pitch in a little bit of money an' have Mike take it out by boat. So that we can put all the kitchen stuff in there, an' all the heavy stuff, an' just pack out our clothes an' tents *an' stuff*.

(Overstreet, 1999:148)

Overstreet (1999:148-150) argues that *an' stuff* here functions to mark the speaker's management of her contribution within the constraints of the quantitative maxim, resting on possible shared knowledge. It can generate the speaker's informative effect, indicating that 'there is more and you know what I mean, so I don't have to be more explicit at this point.' (Overstreet, 1999:149-150).

With regard to the quality maxim, the following sample shows that *or something*, another general extender form, is employed in the context where a speaker does not seem to know the exact type of the dog that the third person *she* has obtained.

She's got a small dog, a kind of poodle, *or something*.

(Carter et al., 2011:538)

Or something may enable the speaker to observe the quality maxim and to contribute the interaction with the hearer. It makes an effect of making what s/he says sound less confident of the fact, with her/his deploying *a kind of* to avoid specifying the dog type before *poodle*, a specific type amongst various kinds of dogs. This implies that s/he attempts not to say what s/he believes false, and *or something* signals her/his uncertainty of what s/he says.

In criticism of Grice's (1975) maxims, Sperber and Wilson point out that maxims would be infinitive and ad hoc so that a regularity of every possible maxim would be hard to be met (1986:36). Sperber and Wilson's (1986) Relevance Theory is under the presupposition that a speaker wants a hearer to understand her/his intention of communicating, and in that case, it is shared between them that the speaker intends to clarify that s/he has her/his informative intention to the hearer. In order for the speaker's implication to be conveyed, what counts is the mutual interest

of both a speaker and hearer; her/his effort to make the old and new pieces of information most relevant so that the hearer can understand her/his implication, and the hearer's expectation that the speaker has spoken to be optimally relevant in the context (Sperber & Wilson, 1986). The greater the contextual effect to the hearer when processing the speaker's speech and implication, the greater the relevance between the old and new information (Sperber & Wilson, 1986:48). Jucker, Smith and Lüdge relate the use of English vague language to Sperber and Wilson's (1986) theory: when a speaker uses English vague language with her/his intention of conveying her/his implication, her/his assumption that the hearer may share knowledge with her/him and her/his evaluation about to what extent the hearer can infer her/his implication in English vague language is necessary (Jucker et al., 2003).

In this study, however, using general extenders is not always related to a matter of level of best relevance between the speaker's assumption and evaluation whether functions of general extenders can be inferred by a hearer. It is firstly because the use of general extenders does not always rest on shared knowledge but occurs without referring to any category. In the sample below, for instance, Cheshire (2007:175-176) points out that the interviewee, who has a pony on loan, does not seem to indicate any other items rather than *ride it* in her ad hoc category 'what you can do if you have a pony on loan':

But you pay them so much to be able to ride it *and things*
(Cheshire, 2007:176)

It is secondly because the context of the speech production was in the speaking test, as has been briefly mentioned in Chapter 1; the Japanese examinees may regard it as more important to keep talking rather than to evaluate the degree of being inferred by the examiner because they had to produce sample language for assessment. Because of this, Grice's maxims of quality and quantity were partly useful to theorise some functions of general extenders in this study.

This section has explained that Grice's (1975) cooperative principle was used as part of theoretical framework to investigate interpersonal functions of general extenders used by JUEs in the corpus. Next, Goffman's (1967) face-work and Brown

and Levinson's (1987) theory of positive and negative politeness are also reviewed as part of the framework of functions of general extenders, along with Grice's (1975) concept of interaction as cooperative in nature.

3.3.3 Face management and politeness

This section firstly reviews and Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory related to Goffman's (1967) face-work because their framework of positive and negative politeness focusing on a speaker's face-work fits in to describe part of the functions of general extenders spoken by the JUEs in the speaking test. Next, Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory is linked to some of the functions of general extenders shown in samples.

Brown and Levinson's argument is based on the concept of Goffman's (1967) face-work. Goffman defined face as 'the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact' and a positive self-image portrayed 'in terms of approved social attributes' (1967:5). Brown and Levinson then divided the quality of face into two parts: positive face, which is 'the positive consistent self-image or personality', and negative face, which is 'the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, rights to non-distraction' (1987:61).

Goffman highlighted two orientations of face-work: 'a defensive orientation toward saving his own face' and 'a protective orientation toward saving the others' face' (1967:14). Brown and Levinson (1987) focus on a speaker's face-work of saving the others' face in order to minimise the risk of communication breakdown between them. They categorise politeness strategies employed by a speaker into two; one is positive politeness, in which a speaker attempts to present a closeness and solidarity to a hearer, and the other is negative politeness, in which s/he attempts to refrain from imposing or threatening her/his face (1987:61-62).

Brown and Levinson (1987) further focus on linguistic politeness: linguistic forms that show positive politeness are joking and using in-group markers such as nicknames and first names, for instance; and linguistic forms that show negative politeness include indirect speech acts and hedging, for instance. However, their

linguistic politeness has been criticised by Thomas (1995), Eelen (2001) and Watts (2003) in that it disregards the context that makes speech polite between a speaker and hearer but attributes what makes speech polite only to linguistic features. Specific linguistic forms or structures themselves are not inherently polite (Watts, 2003:21; Spencer-Oatey, 2008:2), and some speech acts themselves are not inherently polite (Thomas, 1995:176). As politeness is seen as ‘a phenomenon connected with (the relationship between) language and social reality’ (Eelen, 2001:1), politeness cannot be discussed without considering the relationship between language and social reality (Eelen, 2001; Watts, 2003).

The limitation of Brown and Levinson’s (1987) theory does not affect this study because it uses their theoretical framework of a speaker’s positive and negative politeness to the other, but not their framework of linguistic politeness. General extenders are not inherently polite linguistic forms, but by being employed in spoken discourse in a specific context, they can cause an effect of showing politeness towards a hearer as one of their functions. Also Brown and Levinson’s (1987) framework helps to describe part of functions of general extenders. Next, the relevance between their positive and negative politeness and functions of general extenders is illustrated with samples.

Positive and negative politeness towards a hearer is one of the functions with which general extenders are associated. In the following sample, for instance, Overstreet (1999:100) explains that *an’ stuff like that* occurs in the context where the speaker is anticipating what she has to do in her new life and she is talking to her friend about how she is dealing with it. She argues that *an’ stuff like that* in this context is not intimating the existence of other items but presenting the solidarity towards the hearer relying on the shared understanding which the hearer may have (1999:100).

Start sendin’ out my resumé, *an’ stuff like that*, but I me, an,
(Overstreet, 1999:100)

General extenders can work for negative politeness, too. For instance, Channell (1994:190) presents the following sample which occurs in the context

where a hearer has given up alcohol and a speaker knows that. She suggests that *or something* refers to non- alcoholic drinks which can be represented by orange juice and is employed to show negative politeness so as to provide options and avoid potentially threatening his face to turn down orange juice and ask for something else (Channell, 1994:190).

Would you like a drink – an orange juice *or something*?
(Channell, 1994:190)

Thomas (1995:176) points out that what a speaker says may intend both positive and negative politeness at one time. In Channell's example above, for instance, *or something* may work not only to show negative politeness as described above, but also positive politeness in that the speaker may indicate that s/he shares the background knowledge on the hearer and understands her/his situation. In some situations, a general extender employed by a speaker can imply both positive and negative politeness, and her/his general extender can cause an effect of both regardless of a speaker's original intention. Both characteristics of politeness can occur at a time, and it rests on multi-functionality of general extenders in nature. Admitting the complexity of positive and negative politeness theory, in the exploration of functions of general extenders in the corpus, co-occurring words and co-texts with general extenders in the corpus helped to interpret the JUEs' politeness strategies to the examiners in the speaking test. The use of the politeness framework in the corpus-based study described part of interpersonal functions of general extenders in the speaking test.

Next, the benefits of corpus linguistics to pragmatic study are discussed.

3.3.4 Benefit of corpus linguistics to pragmatics

The benefits of corpus linguistics for pragmatic exploration of language in this study are its computational ability of building single word/multi-word cluster frequency lists, keyword lists and concordance lines to help to look at large amounts of data easily at one time as a starting point for approaching the data (Rühlemann,

2010; O’Keeffe et al., 2011; Walsh, Morton, & O’Keeffe, 2011). As has been argued above with sample extracts, co-occurring words can, but do not always, uncover what the speaker implies in the use of general extenders. For this purpose, concordance lines and lists of co-occurring words with general extenders are useful to investigate in what co-text the general extenders occur and what the general extender indicates with the co-occurring words in that co-text. Sinclair (2004) argues that ‘the word is not the best starting-point for a description of meaning, because meaning arises from words in particular combinations’ (2004:148). It is highly associated with pragmatic studies in the corpus-based approach (O’Keeffe et al., 2011). In the light of the study of general extenders, more specifically, Cheshire (2007) underlines the importance of examining co-occurring words with general extenders because functions of general extenders are constructed with other linguistic features. The combination of these features and the occurrence of general extenders provided a wider perspective of analysing the data to answer the research question ‘how and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring general extenders in the English speaking test in the NICT corpus?’ (see Chapters 6, 7 and 8 for details.)

At the same time, it is acknowledged that corpora do not account for context (Widdowson, 2004:124) or do not record the whole context (Rühlemann, 2010). To make up for the lack of information on the specific context in the corpus in this study, the characteristics of spoken interaction in the speaking test from the perspective of genre partly served to aid the functional exploration of general extenders. In the speaking test, the power of floor management rested on the examiner and a goal of the interaction for the examinee was to provide as many spoken texts as possible for assessment. This means that the examinees had to speak in the limited time slot where the floor was mainly managed by the examiner. Additionally, the speaking test in the current study included different task types, as has been mentioned in Section 3.2.3. The degree of shared knowledge varied across task types; for instance, in the monologic tasks of description of a picture and story-telling of a series of pictures, the examinees and examiners shared more knowledge about what was talked about in the tasks because both of them shared the task cards, compared to the degree of shared knowledge in the dialogic task in which the examinees were asked to talk about themselves. The nature of the speaking test and task types affected the

examinees' use of general extenders and the backup elements of general extenders' pragmatic functions used by the examinees in the speaking test. This study suggests that the genre perspective can partly make up for the lack of contextual background which is essential to the pragmatic approach but is not written in the scripts of the corpus.

To sum up, the theoretical framework of pragmatic functional analysis of general extenders in the study includes face management and politeness, and cooperative principle. Corpus linguistics was beneficial to conduct the pragmatic exploration to answer the research question 'what are the main functions of the general extenders?' in the speaking test.

3.4 Conversation analysis

This corpus-based study employs the approach of conversation analysis, too, to answer the research question 'how and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring GEs in the English speaking test in the NICT corpus?' Amongst various aspects in conversation analysis, relevant to this study are intersubjectivity and turn-taking. Intersubjectivity is one of the theories underpinning conversation analysis regarding participants' knowledge of discourse construction, which can support the explanation of one of the functions of general extenders to construct discourse of spoken interaction. Turn-taking is one of the characteristics of interactions found in the approach of conversation analysis, which is of help in deducing some of the functions of general extenders by paying attention to the places where in the JUEs' turns they occur.

This section firstly outlines the theory of conversation analysis, including intersubjectivity. The discussion moves on to L2 users' language studies and conversation analysis. Thirdly it addresses the relevance of turn-taking and positioning of general extenders. Finally it argues the merits of combining conversation analysis with corpus linguistics.

3.4.1 Defining conversation analysis

This section defines conversation analysis because the approach of conversation analysis is employed in this study to reveal the relevance of general extenders' positions of turn-taking in the JUEs' turns and their discourse-oriented functions, in order to answer the research question 'How and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring GEs in the English speaking test in the NICT corpus?'

Conversation analysis is a systematic analysis of the organisation of interaction which occurs in human social activities, regarding what is going on in the interaction between participants and how they display their understanding of what will happen next by considering the previous sequence of their interaction, by co-constructing meanings (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008:11-12). The aim of conversation analysis is to describe and explain how participants generate socially organised sequences of interaction together (Heritage & Atkinson, 1984:1; Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008:12), grounded in an in-depth analysis of the spoken data to find some features which characterise the interaction between participants (Sacks, 1984).

Conversation analysis rests on a theory of intersubjectivity (Heritage, 1984b; Schegloff, 1992). Intersubjectivity is a concept which holds participants in interaction have enough 'commonsense knowledge of social structure' (Garfinkel 1967:76) to construct interaction in a mechanical and intelligible manner between them. Schiffrin (1990:138) associates intersubjectivity not only with common sense processes for implying and inferring a speaker's discourse management but also prior knowledge of how language is principally used to imply and infer a speaker's discourse management.

Intersubjectivity is highly relevant to characteristics of interactions; for example, turn-taking, repair and overlapping in interaction (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974), the typical structures such as opening and closing phases in interaction (Heritage, 2004), the sequence of adjacency pairs, which conventionally occur in pairs such as greetings-greetings back and invitation-acceptance/refusal (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). These typical patterns are constructed based on intersubjectivity between participants in the interaction.

After the ground-breaking work in the approach of conversation analysis by Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974), studies in the approach of conversation

analysis have been conducted in terms of interactions in institutional settings (Heritage, 1984a, 2005), intersubjectivity and repair to make up for possible communication hitches (Schegloff, 1992), interactions between teachers and students in language classroom settings (Seedhouse, 2004), and turn-taking in conversation in Japanese conducted by native Japanese speakers (Tanaka, 1999), to name but a few. The typical organisational patterns occurring in L2 users' language have been studied, too, although there is some criticism. In the next section, the approach of conversation analysis to the study of L2 users' language is explored.

3.4.2 Conversation analysis applied to the study of L2 users' language

There is an argument around applying conversation analysis to the study of L2 users' language. It concerns the difficulty in revealing L2 users' linguistic problems. Wagner (1996) insists that it is difficult for analysts to find L2 users' problems in interactions in the approach of conversation analysis; although speech produced in the interaction are the main resource in conversation analysis, what they actually say cannot elucidate their linguistic problems because they do not tend to say explicitly that they have problems dealing with communication.

However, admitting the difficulty in analysing L2 users' language, Seedhouse argues that conversation analysis does not necessarily require explicit description of what participants think, and problems of communication can be exposed in the spoken texts produced by the participants and the texts are essential resources in the approach of conversation analysis to explore L2 users' language (1998:88). Conversation analysis has been used to investigate L2 users' language in the area of second language acquisition (Wagner & Gardner, 2004) as well as in lingua franca (Firth, 1996). In terms of studies of JUEs in the approach of conversation analysis, for instance, Carroll (2005) investigates the occurrence of vowel-marking at the end of words (e.g. *like* is pronounced as *laiku*, *and* is pronounced as *ando*) at turn-internal or turn-final positions by JUEs at the beginners' level. These studies have contributed to identifying L2 users' characteristics to construct discourse and to generate sequences of social interaction. In the current study, too, the data of the

JUEs' English was a valuable resource in itself to reveal what the typical positions of general extenders in their turns serves to discourse-oriented functions in order to achieve the goal in the speaking test.

3.4.3 Turn-taking and positions of general extenders

This section details the relevance of turn-taking and positions of general extenders because the current study looks at positioning of general extenders in the JUEs' turns in order to explore its interpersonal and discourse-oriented functions, answering the research question 'how and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring GEs in the English speaking test in the NICT corpus?' Firstly, this section outlines turn-taking. It then discusses turn-taking organisation in genres, especially, in speaking tests. It finally reviews the previous studies of positions of general extenders and their functions.

Turn-taking is a basic structure of interactional organisation, in which speakers change repeatedly amongst participants in the interaction (Sacks et al., 1974). The unit that constitutes a turn, which is labelled a 'turn-constructive unit', can be any linguistic levels, for instance, sentential, clausal, phrasal or lexical levels (Sacks et al., 1974:702), and the place where one's turn is transferred to another is called the 'transition-relevance place' (Sacks et al., 1974:703). 'A special turn-taking organization' is a turn-taking sequence specific to some forms of interaction, such as meetings and debate, in predictable and conventional ways owing to their tasks (Heritage, 2004:226). A special turn-taking organisation such as in an employer-candidate interaction at job interview and in a doctor-patient interaction at physical examination is distinct in that the turn-taking organisation is mainly restricted to one participant asking questions and another responding them (Heritage, 2004:226). Similar organisation can also be observed in the genre of speaking tests, in which an examiner asking questions and an examinee answering them. In such a paradigm, the turn-taking organisation is dominated by an examiner who allocates turns to the examinee (Young, 2002; Luk, 2010).

In the light of positions of general extenders in a speaker's turn, general extenders have been revealed to contribute as a discourse management device at different positions in turn-taking. General extenders have been found to serve as a

marker of ending the discourse and giving up the turn to a next speaker (Dubois, 1993; Winter & Norrby, 2000; Tagliamonte & Denis, 2010). The previous studies illustrate that general extenders are partly relevant to the turn-taking, where the speaker gives up the turn and allocates the turn indirectly to a next speaker. In the genre of speaking tests, Hasselgreen (2004) found that more than half of *or something* occurs at the end of the examinees' turn; however, its relevance to the examinees' discourse construction has not been discussed in detail across speaking proficiency levels and task types. Additionally, the power relationship and the turn-taking mechanism in her study are different from the one in this study because, while the examinees in her study speak in pairs, the examinees in the corpus in the current study speak to examiners. In the current study, typical positions of general extenders in the JUEs' turns in the corpus were cast light on in order to reveal their discourse-oriented functions to appeal to the examiners' intersubjectivity and to achieve their goal of interaction with an examiner in the speaking test. The next section addresses the benefits of corpus linguistics to conversation analysis in order to identify and argue positioning of general extenders in turn-taking.

3.4.4 Benefits of corpus linguistics to conversation analysis

This section argues the benefits of corpus linguistics to conversation analysis and how the approach helps to understand the JUEs' ways of using general extenders in the speaking test.

Conversation analysis is highly qualitative to explain the structure of interaction in detail (Sacks, 1984), as reviewed before. However, it has been argued that the quantitative aspect can be applied to conversation analysis (Heritage, 2004:240; Seedhouse, 2005:259). Heritage suggests, considering that many studies of institutional interaction which embody a quantitative aspect address the data at the level of turn design, that this is easy to quantify and that its quantification can be applied to support findings in the approach of conversation analysis (2004:231).

The combination of corpus linguistics and conversation analysis can provide more detailed description of spoken interaction in a specific context, rather than either of them can separately, both from quantitative and qualitative aspects (Walsh

& O’Keeffe, 2010:141-142). When looking at specific lexical clusters in a spoken text, corpus linguistics enables researchers to find the target lexical clusters quickly, presents how each of them is used in certain co-texts on a computer screen, and counts the total number of the clusters. It helps them to notice a specific trend of how the cluster works for constructing turns in an interaction to attain a set goal. Amongst other corpus-based studies, for instance, McCarthy (2003) examines turn-initial items in English which frequently occur in everyday interaction in the UK and US and demonstrates that these items can function as response tokens to signal listenership. Tao (2003) also identifies functions of turn-initial elements, appearing frequently in telephone conversations and informal conversations in North America, as tying the turn with the previous one, evaluating what is said in the previous turn, explaining the speaker’s intention and acknowledging what is said in the previous turn. Walsh and O’Keeffe (2010) investigate interaction between tutors and students oriented to the specific pedagogic goals in the academic context, and identify typical discourse markers used by the tutors in the corpus linguistic approach and situations where they occur in the academic context in the approach of conversation analysis. The in-depth analysis and argument in the approach of conversation analysis can be supported with the quantitative findings in the corpus linguistic approach.

This study also used corpus linguistics in the tradition of conversation analysis to answer the research question ‘how and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring GEs in the English speaking test in the NICT corpus?’ The goal of the Japanese examinees in the interaction was to produce sample language for assessment, as has been discussed in Section 3.2.2. Of interest in the context were how the general extenders served to construct the spoken discourse and to achieve the goal across speaking proficiency levels and task types, and why the general extenders were used in the context. In the approach of corpus linguistics, firstly, typical general extenders were identified quantitatively across speaking proficiency levels in the corpus. Then concordance lines for the most frequently-occurring general extenders pictured where in the examinees’ turn the general extenders occurred. Co-occurring words were also looked at because they can partly construct the functions of general extenders (Cheshire, 2007), as has been argued in Section 2.3. The process allowed the researcher to have in-depth analysis in the tradition of

conversation analysis, looking at the co-occurring words and co-texts, in order to identify what the typical position of general extenders means to help the examinees to achieve the goal in the speaking test across speaking proficiency levels and task types. The detailed analysis and discussion of the data are addressed in the later chapters of results and discussions of *or something (like that)*, *and stuff*, and *and so on* respectively (Chapters 6, 7 and 8).

3.5 Summary

This chapter has introduced the frameworks that were used in the study. Corpus linguistics is useful to answer the research question ‘how and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring general extenders in the speaking test?’, both from the quantitative and qualitative analyses. It is because corpus linguistics provides specialised tools and methodologies to uncover insight into general extenders in terms of frequency, forms and functions. Word/multi-word cluster lists allow investigation of frequency. Co-occurring word lists and concordance lines allow investigation of patterns in the light of co-occurring words with general extenders and positions of general extenders in turn-taking. They also allow the exploration of general extenders’ interpersonal and discourse-oriented functions. The functional analysis is looked at from the genre, pragmatic and conversation analytic viewpoints in the corpus-based analysis. The genre analytic view is important in the study to understand characteristics of the speaking test, including the goal of communication, the asymmetric power relationship and contextual variables. The characteristics impact on the examinees’ language-in-use and it is related to answering the subsidiary research question ‘what are the main functions of the general extenders?’ in the speaking test. The study of L2 users’ language in use in learner corpora of a speaking test can contribute to the development of examiners’ and assessors’ understanding of how the examinees at different levels of speaking proficiency behave in the speaking test. Grice’s (1975) cooperative principle, Goffman’s (1967) face-work and Brown and Levinson’s (1987) politeness theory serve to underpin some of the pragmatic functions of general extenders and to explore the JUEs’ general extenders in the test to answer the subsidiary research question ‘what are the

main functions of the general extenders?’ Turn-taking in interaction underpins discourse-oriented functions of general extenders regarding how they build their discourse by using general extenders appealing to intersubjectivity to the examiner and what the general extenders signal in the speaking test. The combination of genre, pragmatics, conversation analysis and corpus linguistics enables researchers to conduct a qualitative analysis enhanced with quantitative findings.

The next chapter details the data and methodologies of investigating language teachers’ beliefs about JUEs’ use of general extenders in the interview and JUEs’ use of general extenders in the corpus. It also conducts an introductory data analysis in the corpus to identify the most frequently-occurring general extenders in the corpus and shows how to use corpus linguistics as a methodology.

Chapter 4 DATA AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter addresses the data and methodology drawn on in this study. Firstly it describes the interview, which were carried out to find answers to the first research question ‘what do Japanese teachers of English think about the use of general extenders spoken by Japanese users of English (JUEs) in the context of language education?’ Next, this chapter presents a description of the NICT JLE Corpus, which is a main data-set of the study to find answers to the second research question ‘how and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring general extenders in the English speaking test in the NICT corpus?’ It then provides an overview of the corpus-based tools and methodologies which are being implemented in the study. Finally it illustrates and shows the process of analysing the spoken data in the corpus involved in generating the most frequently occurring general extenders which are being focused on in this study.

4.1 Teachers’ beliefs about general extenders

The corpus-based exploration of the JUEs’ use of general extenders across speaking proficiency levels and task types is a main theme of this study. In order to take into account pedagogical implications for language education, it was necessary to explore how the corpus-based findings could be beneficial to language education and what information about JUEs’ use of general extenders could be useful to language educators. However, as has been addressed in Section 2.4, research into beliefs of Japanese teachers of English about general extenders have not been conducted yet. In order to make implications of the corpus-based findings relevant to language education, the first research question ‘what do Japanese teachers of English think about the use of general extenders spoken by JUEs in the context of language education?’ was settled and a small piece of research on the Japanese English teachers’ beliefs about JUEs’ use of general extenders was conducted.

This section firstly argues the merits of the semi-structured interview drawn on in the research. It then details the profile of the participants, the set of questions in

the interview, the pilot interview, and the main interview. It ends with a discussion of the methodological issues of the interview.

4.1.1 Merits of semi-structured interview

This section explains the merits of the semi-structured interview drawn on for qualitative research to collect data of the participants' beliefs about the use of general extenders. The purpose of qualitative research is to describe and to have an in-depth understanding of what a person has experienced (Dörnyei, 2007:126), and in order to pursue this purpose, the interview is a common approach in qualitative investigations (Dörnyei, 2007:134). There are three types of interviews in terms of the degree of structure; structured, unstructured and semi-structured interviews (Dörnyei, 2007:134-136). In the format of the structured interview, a list of questions is set and there is little flexibility in the responses because the interview schedule is tightly controlled and the interviewees' responses cannot be expanded, as is the same with written questionnaires (Dörnyei, 2007:135). On the other hand, the unstructured interview allows the interviewees to elaborate their thoughts about a given topic into directions which the interviewer might not have predicted (Dörnyei, 2007:135); however, this type may run a risk of providing little information that the researcher wants because, as Dörnyei (2007:135-136) explains, the interviewer's interference should be kept to a minimum.

A compromise between the structured and unstructured interviews is a semi-structured interview. A merit of the semi-structured interview is that, while the interviewer prepares a set of questions and guides the participant to a certain direction with these questions, the structure is open-ended and the interviewer can motivate the interviewee to expand on the issues and develop their thoughts (Drever, 1995:3; Dörnyei, 2007:136). The semi-structured interview allowed the author (as an interviewer) to hear the participants' beliefs about the use of general extenders, and at the same time, to keep the focus on the topic during the limited time of the interview slot.

It may be argued that the questionnaire might be more suitable because open-ended questions can also be applied and the method would be more time-saving. However, questionnaires are regarded as not particularly suited for truly qualitative,

exploratory research (Dörnyei, 2007:107). The questionnaire cannot allow an opportunity for the interviewer's follow-up questions or for the participants' clarification of what the questions mean. The semi-structured interview, and the interview overall, can respond to the interviewee's questions. Additionally, the interviewer could notice the interviewee's possible uncertainty about what the questions mean specifically or how to answer the questions. The interviewer could then provide spontaneous aid to the interviewee and facilitate the interviewee's answers.

In this research, due to the geographical distance between the author living in Britain and the participants living in Japan at the time of the interview, the interview was conducted on Skype¹⁰. Skype is a software package which enables users to make voice or/and video calls on the internet. A video call on Skype enabled the author to see the participants' gestures and facial expressions and to respond to their questions, overcoming the geographical gap. A voice call on Skype was also drawn on if the participants wanted. It has been pointed out that a limitation of telephone interviews is the loss of non-verbal expressions in the interview (Drever, 1995:15). Therefore, the author paid great care to notice the participants' uncertainty about how to answer the questions and to facilitate their comments. However, allowing for the merit of spontaneity to respond to the interviewees' questions and gain insights of qualitative enquiry, the telephone interview was beneficial to this study rather than employing the questionnaire.

4.1.2 The interview in the study

This section outlines the interview in the study regarding participants, the question sets, the pilot interview and main interview.

4.1.2.1 Participants

This section outlines the participants in the pilot and main interviews. It then explains the size of the main interview.

¹⁰ See Skype <http://beta.skype.com/en/what-is-skype/>

The pilot interview was conducted with three teachers, all of whom were females, in their 30s and acquaintances of the author. The main interview was conducted with eight teachers, none of whom had been the author's acquaintance at the time of the interview. Details of their bio data, with their names changed, are shown in Table 4.1.

All of the teachers interviewed had teaching experience at universities in Japan at the time of the interview, teaching or having taught Japanese students in English classes including speaking activities. The author wanted participants who knew how JUEs spoke in English in various contexts such as in discussion, presentation and informal conversations in the context of language education in Japan. The author also wanted participants who taught at universities because it was thought, at the time of interviewing, that universities would have more classes which included speaking activities than secondary schools, and teachers at universities would know about how JUEs speak in the classroom context more than those at secondary schools would do.

It is acknowledged that the participants' students at universities were not the same as the JUEs in the NICT JLE Corpus, which is used in this study (for more information about the JUEs in the corpus, see Section 4.2.1). However, this did not affect the whole study because the purpose of this interview was not to match up the teachers' beliefs about their students' use of general extenders with their actual use of general extenders. As has been argued in Section 2.4, the purpose of the research into teacher beliefs was to obtain the teachers' beliefs in general to consider how the corpus-based findings could be useful to the context of language education as an experiment of associating corpus-based findings to language education.

All of the participants were native speakers of Japanese, because the author wanted to hear the teachers' beliefs not only from the perspective of teaching experiences but also from L2 users' perspective. As the participants and the author shared the same first language, all the pilot and main interviews were conducted in Japanese because it would be practical to talk in their first language.

In the light of the data size in the main interview, Dörnyei suggests that the sampling size between 6 to 10 can be manageable for a single researcher to conduct an interview and to have an in-depth understanding of what the participants said

related to the research focus (2007:127). In this study, manageability was important because the interview was a subsidiary part of this study as has been explained above and the interview focused on the qualitative inquiry. The size of the main interview had its merits in that it provided scope for in-depth fine-grained analysis of the participants' beliefs about JUEs' use of general extenders that would not have been possible to manage with a large dataset.

Next the set of questions asked to the participants in the main interview is described.

Table 4.1 Bio data of the participants in the main interview

Participant (Names are pseudonymous.)	Age	Sex	Teaching experience at Japanese universities	Years of living in English speaking countries
Eri	50s	Female	9 years at university	11 years (10 years in Britain and 1 year in Australia)
Hana	30s	Female	2 years	0
Jun	30s	Male	Half a year	0
Mika	30s	Female	2 years	1 year in US
Ken	30s	Male	3 years	7 years in Britain
Mari	40s	Female	19 years	3 years (1 year in US and 2 years in Britain)
Risa	40s	Female	10 years	0
Sara	30s	Female	7 years and a half	6 weeks in UK over 3 years, each stay about 2 weeks.

4.1.2.2 The set of questions in the main interview

This section describes the set of questions in the interview. The purpose of the interview was to answer the first research question 'what do Japanese teachers of English think about the use of general extenders spoken by JUEs in the context of language education?' In order to answer the question and to ensure the relevance of the application of the findings to the context of language education, the interview was designed in the following three parts (see Appendix 3 for questions);

1. Japanese language teachers' beliefs about general extenders in general:
What do Japanese language teachers think about the use of general extenders in spoken English in general?

The aim of the first part was to elicit the teachers' beliefs about using general extenders in general in spoken English because their beliefs about the use of general extenders in various contexts and situations may affect their beliefs about JUEs' use of general extenders, which was the main focus of the interview. In this part, the author as an interviewer started the interview by asking whether the teachers used general extenders. As a probe, she asked questions such as what they thought about using general extenders and others using general extenders in social interaction. Their beliefs about spoken English grammar was also asked because they might impact on their beliefs about general extenders as part of spoken English grammar.

2. Japanese language teachers' beliefs about JUEs use of general extenders:
What do Japanese language teachers think about teaching general extenders to JUEs?

The aim of the second part of the interview was to understand their beliefs about JUEs' use of general extenders in the context of language education to answer the research question above. The teachers' beliefs from various aspects of their teaching and learning experience were sought for to ensure the relevance of the application of the corpus-based findings to the context of language education. At the beginning of the second part, the author asked what they thought about teaching general extenders to their students as a starting point to elicit their beliefs about JUEs' use of general extenders in the context of language education. Their beliefs about spoken English grammar was additionally sought as mentioned above.

3. Japanese language teachers' beliefs about JUEs' use of general extenders in speaking tests: What do Japanese language teachers think about Japanese examinees' using general extenders in speaking tests?

The third part of the interview concerned the teachers' beliefs about JUEs' use of general extenders in speaking tests. It attended to the topic to make sure if they had beliefs specifically about JUEs' use of general extenders in speaking tests. As this study's main data-set of JUEs' spoken English was taken from a speaking test (see Section 4.2), it was necessary to prepare for an initial setting to relate the corpus-based findings to teachers' beliefs.

The question set above was established through modification after the pilot interview (see Section 4.1.2.3 for a brief outline of the pilot interview). Two points were modified. Firstly, the order of questions (general extenders first and spoken English grammar second) was decided through modification. In the pilot interview, questions about spoken English grammar were asked first and general extenders second in order to have a wider view of spoken English and narrow down to general extenders as a specific linguistic form amongst spoken English grammar. However, after piloting the interview, the author was concerned that comments on general extenders might be simplified or shortened after commenting on spoken English grammar if the participants' beliefs about general extenders were similar to that on spoken English grammar, and she wanted richer comments on general extenders than on spoken English grammar in the main interview. Secondly, the third part was added after the pilot interview, because it was necessary to make certain about their beliefs in speaking tests to link them to the corpus-based findings in the speaking test, as mentioned above.

4.1.2.3 The pilot interview

The purpose of conducting the pilot interview was to rehearse the interview and to find some parts which would need to be improved in conducting the interview.

The pilot interview was conducted in November 2010. While the first pilot interview was conducted in a face-to-face setting at a café, the second one was on a video call on Skype and the third one was on a voice call on Skype.

Before the interview, the author passed the participants a letter of information and consent form, including a brief explanation of this study and interview, sample forms of spoken English grammar and general extenders, the informed consent form and the questionnaire for their bio data (Appendix 1). After piloting the interview,

she removed two items regarding spoken English grammar from the section of purpose of the interview in Appendix 1 because teachers' use of spoken English grammar was not the main theme of the interview and these items were unnecessary pieces of information. On the other hand, she added to Appendix 1 some question items for the participants' bio data; 'the years of teaching experience at universities in Japan', 'sex' and 'age', because she thought that these elements might affect their beliefs about general extenders and spoken English grammar. She also made a minor modification on some word choice. The revised letter of information and consent form to the teachers is shown in Appendix 2.

After the pilot studies, two modifications were made regarding the order of the questions, as has been mentioned in the previous section (Section 4.1.2.2).

4.1.2.4 The main interview

This section describes the process of the main interview. The participants were invited to the interview by word-of-mouth; the author sent her acquaintances information, including the purpose of this study and the interview and giving a description of the interview, such as potential participants and personal information protection, all of which was the same as written in the invitation letter (Appendix 2). She then asked them to let her know anyone who might be interested in taking part in the interview. The author contacted the teachers as participants and arranged the data for the interview. Several days before the interview, she sent each of them by email the letter to participants (Appendix 2), including the explanation of this study and interview, a questionnaire for the participants' bio-data, an informed consent form and sample lists of spoken English grammar and general extenders. The participants returned the informed consent form signed and the bio data questionnaire filled in (both in Appendix 2) to her. Methodological issues are discussed in Section 4.1.3 regarding telling the participants the purpose of the study and the interview and showing the participants the sample list of spoken English grammar and general extenders in advance.

The main interview was conducted between August and October 2011. In the main interview, four participants were interviewed on a video call on Skype and the other four were interviewed on a voice call on Skype. Each interview took

approximately one hour, and was recorded with Tapur¹¹, a software package operated with Skype. The recorded sound file is not attached to this thesis in order to protect personal information of the participants such as their names and their affiliations.

The interview was conducted along the three main parts (see Section 4.1.2.2 for details and Appendix 3 for questions). Before the close of the interview, the author asked the participants whether they wished to say anything further, in case they had forgotten to say something. This was because, as Dörnyei (2007:138) suggests, that inviting the participants to have a chance to make final comments could serve to enrich the data.

After conducting the interviews, the recorded data was transcribed. The data transcription made it easier for the author to refer back to what had been said in the interview and to analyse the data in depth.

4.1.3 Methodological issues with regard to the interview

Two methodological issues with regard to the interview are discussed in this section in the light of telling the participants the purpose of the interview in advance and showing the participants the list of examples of spoken English grammar features and forms of general extenders in advance, as has been pointed out in the previous section.

Firstly, before the interview, the research topic of this study and the purpose of the interview were provided to the participants because the author agrees with Dörnyei (2007:140) that it is essential to explain the reason for the interview to participants in advance. The author sought to reduce the participants' possible nervousness or uncomfortableness during the interview as if they had been tested about what English general extenders were like and how to use them appropriately or correctly.

Secondly, in terms of showing the sample lists of spoken English grammar and general extenders (in Appendix 2) before the interview, the lists included the bibliographical references and it might have discouraged the participants from making negative comments on general extenders or spoken English grammar

¹¹ See Tapur <http://www.tapur.com/en/content/view/27/2/>

because the bibliographical references indicate that these linguistic items have been established as one of the academic research areas. However, showing the list in advance was necessary because the participants had to know what spoken English grammar and general extenders were when reading the purpose of the interview in the letter to participants (Appendix 3). Knowing what spoken English grammar and general extenders were in advance may not have caused problems because the purpose of the interview was to gain the participants' beliefs about general extenders and subsidiary on spoken English grammar, but not to assess their knowledge of them.

4.2 Corpus linguistics: exploring general extenders in a corpus of Japanese users of English

In order to answer the main research question 'how and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring general extenders in the English speaking test in the NICT JLE corpus?', this study used investigation tools from corpus linguistics. This section explains the corpus data and corpus linguistics as a methodology used in this study to answer the research question. It consists of three parts; describing the data in the NICT JLE Corpus, a corpus which was used for this study, explaining tools of corpus investigation employed in the exploration of the use of general extenders by the JUEs in the corpus, and demonstrating how the most frequently occurring general extender forms (*or something (like that), and stuff (like that), and so on*) to be studied were chosen by manipulating the corpus investigation tools.

4.2.1 The corpus of Japanese users of English

This section details what the NICT JLE Corpus is like, the benefits of using the corpus and methodological issues of the corpus.

4.2.1.1 Description of the corpus

As has been briefly mentioned in Chapter 1, the National Institute of Information and Communications Technology Japanese Learner English (NICT JLE)

Corpus (Izumi et al., 2004) was used for this study. It consists of 1.3 million words spoken by 1,281 Japanese examinees in the Standard Speaking Test (SST), which was launched in 1997 collaborated by American Council on Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and Alc, Inc., a Japanese publishing company for language education, based on ACTFL's Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) (Izumi et al., 2004). Here, a brief description of the structure of SST, its assessment and score bands are provided. SST is a 15-minute test with one examiner and one examinee (Izumi et al., 2004). As shown in Table 4.2, it consists of five stages including monologic tasks (description of a picture, narrative of a series of four or six pictures) and dialogic tasks (interview, role-play) (Izumi et al., 2004:23-24). After each task of stages 2, 3 and 4, the examinee is asked some questions related to the topic of the task and has dialogic interactions with the examiner. If, for instance, the examinee is asked to describe a picture of 'the inside of a room' at stage 2, s/he may be asked some questions such as 'are there any similarities or differences between the room in the picture and your room?'

Table 4.2 Test tasks in SST

Stage 1	Warm-up (an examiner and examinee exchange greetings, and then the examiner asks the examinee some questions about him/herself, e.g., where s/he lives, her/his hobby, job, etc.)
Stage 2	Description of a picture (the examinee is asked to describe a picture on the task card provided by the examiner. Topics included are classroom, electric shop, map, neighbourhood, restaurant, room and ski.)
Follow-up for Stage 2	Interview related to the topic in Stage 2
Stage 3	Role-play (the examinee is asked to play a role which is described on the task card provided by the examiner. Topic included are invitation, landlord, shopping, train and travel.)
Follow-up for Stage 3	Interview related to the topic in Stage 3
Stage 4	Narrative of a series of four or six pictures (the examinee is asked to tell a story following a sequence of the pictures on the task card provided by the examiner. Topic included are camping, car accident, department store, grocery store, movie, restaurant, stray cat, train station and zoo.)
Follow-up for Stage 4	Interview related to the topic in Stage 4
Stage 5	Closing (the examiner asks the examinee some questions, e.g., what the examinee is doing after the SST ends. The test is closed with farewells.)

The atmosphere of the speaking test is supposed to be informal because the examiners have been instructed to make the interaction with the examinees similar to spontaneous conversation (Izumi et al., 2004:24).

After the interview test, the examinees' speaking proficiency is assessed according to the following categories of assessment criteria: language function; surface feature (whether an interviewee can make simple /complex/compound sentences, or s/he answers questions with words/phrases); accuracy of syntax,

pronunciation, vocabulary, sociolinguistic appropriateness and fluency (Izumi et al., 2004:25-28). The examinees are then allocated in from band 1 (Novice-low-1), the lowest, to band 9 (Advanced-9), the most advanced (Alc Press Inc., 2012b). (See Appendix 4 for the map of SST bands and other test bands.)

The NICT JLE Corpus consists of the following number of sample spoken texts of the examinees at each SST band (Table 4.3). As can be seen in Table 4.3, in the current study, the nine SST bands were merged into three bigger categories (see Appendix 5 for details).

Table 4.3 The number of SST examinees in the NICT JLE Corpus

Level categorised in this study	no. of examinees	SST band description	no. of examinees
Lower	260	Novice-low-1	3
		Novice-mid-2	35
		Novice-high-3	222
Intermediate	848	Intermediate-low-4	482
		Intermediate-low-plus-5	236
		Intermediate-mid-6	130
Higher	173	Intermediate-mid-plus-7	77
		Intermediate-high-8	56
		Advanced-9	40
Total	1281	Total	1281

In this study, task types in SST were categorised as follows;

- Dialogic tasks: Interviews (Stage 1, Follow-ups for Stage 2, 3 and 4, Stage 5) and role-play (Stage 3)
- Monologic tasks: Description (Stage 2) and narrative (Stage 4)

The total running words occurring in the examinees' spoken texts at each level of speaking proficiency and each stage is shown below (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4 Total running words in the examinees' spoken texts in the NICT JLE Corpus

Test tasks	Lower	Intermediate	Higher
Interview	95551	530608	222243
Role-play	26949	146826	14320
Description	15087	86703	6272
Narrative	24973	135329	7794
Total	162560	899466	250629

In the NICT JLE Corpus, the transcribed data are tagged; Table 4.5 below shows the tags which appear in the extracts and concordance lines in the current study.

Table 4.5 Tags which appear in concordance lines and extracts in the study excerpted from the NICT JLE Corpus

<?></?>	Hardly codable
<H pn="X"></H>	Concealed words such as proper nouns for private policy
<.></.>	Pause for two to three seconds
<..></..>	Pause more than three seconds
	Overlapping with an examinee and examiner
<laughter></laughter>	Speech with laughter
<JP></JP>	Japanese words

4.2.1.2 Benefits of using the corpus

There are three benefits of using the NICT JLE Corpus in this study. The NICT JLE Corpus was suitable for answering the research question ‘how and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring general extenders in the English speaking test in the NICT corpus?’ for the following three reasons.

Firstly, the corpus includes the JUEs’ spoken texts, and these would be far more than the author could collect by herself within the time permitted for PhD research period. It would not have been possible or practical during the PhD research period to collect and transcribe spoken data from JUEs from different levels of speaking proficiency in the same speaking test and with the same assessment criteria.

Secondly, the variety of texts spoken by JUEs at different levels of speaking proficiency was also beneficial to this study. The corpus enabled the author to answer the subsidiary research question ‘are there any differences across speaking proficiency levels?’, and contributed to describing various interpersonal and interactional meanings across the levels of speaking proficiency. No other spoken English corpora by JUEs, such as in LINDSEI International Corpus (Gilquin et al., 2010), have provided spoken data from different speaking proficiency levels, at the time of writing this thesis.

Thirdly, the variety of task types in the corpus was also an advantage to this study. The monologic and dialogic text types over the four test tasks allowed the author to examine interpersonal and discourse-oriented functions of general extenders across the contexts. It contributed to uncovering the relevance between task types and the occurrence of general extenders (see Chapters 6, 7 and 8 for details).

4.2.1.3 Methodological issues of the corpus

This section explores three methodological issues with regard to the corpus; task cards for SST, sound files and access to the examinees. Firstly, task cards for each stage were not provided by the NICT or Alc, Inc. because of the contract between the NICT and Alc, Inc. (reply from Izumi to the author's question); as these were used in the SST, it was not possible to disclose them to public (reply from Alc, Inc. to the author's question). It would have been easier for the author to understand what information the examinees and examiners had shared and what could be the impact on the examinees' speech production. In order to fill the contextual gap, the author read the transcribed texts carefully to have an outline of what had been there on the task cards.

Secondly, sound files of the corpus were not open to the public because of protecting personal information of the examinees (reply from Izumi to the author's question), such as the examinees' names, where they lived or the names of their affiliations, which were concealed in the transcribed files. If sound files were used with the transcribed files with their SST bands included the examinees' SST bands would be revealed and this would have to be avoided from the viewpoint of personal information protection. Sound files would have allowed an analysis of JUEs' use of general extenders in light of their typical discourse intonation and functions, as has been conducted by Warren (2007). However, it was not a problem here because this study took the approaches of genre analysis, pragmatics and conversation analysis, and focused on the co-texts and discourse surrounding the JUEs' general extenders, using the concordance lines, extracts and co-occurring word lists (see Chapter 3). Additionally, the NICT JLE Corpus was essential to this study because of its variety

of the examinees' levels of speaking proficiency and task types, as has been discussed in the previous section.

Finally, regarding access to the examinees, it was impossible for the author to contact the examinees in the corpus as their personal information was protected. In terms of functions of general extenders used by JUEs, this study did not consider asking them why they used general extenders as a practical or appropriate way of examining their functions. This is because participants' perceptions of using general extenders and their actual use may not necessarily have been the same: as has been argued in the previous study, there is a gap between speakers' perception of using hedging expressions and their actual use (Watts, 1989). It would be difficult and impractical for the examinees to remember what they said more than one decade ago and the reason why they used general extenders, as well as to analyse their use by themselves and explain the reasons for their use of general extenders. Instead, the approaches of pragmatics and conversation analysis were taken in this study to examine functions of general extenders in the co-texts where they occurred.

4.2.2 Corpus tools and methodology

In this section, multi-word cluster frequency and concordances are explained as analytical tools of corpus linguistics in the exploration of the corpus in the approaches of genre, pragmatics and conversation analysis. These tools were run with Wordsmith Tools 5 (Scott, 2010), which is a lexical analysis software programme carrying out a rapid calculation and building word/multi-word cluster frequency lists, co-occurring word lists and concordance lines for texts.

4.2.2.1 Multi-word cluster frequency

Firstly, Wordsmith Tools 5 generates frequency lists for multi-word clusters (e.g., 2-, 3-, 4-word clusters) in a corpus, which presents the ranking of multi-word clusters in order of frequency. For example, Table 4.6 is an extract from 3-word cluster frequency list at the lower level, where *and so on* appears 49th most frequently.

Table 4.6 Part of the 3-word cluster frequency list at the lower level in the NICT JLE Corpus

Number	Word	Freq.
45	THANK YOU YES	57
46	I WILL GO	56
47	WE GO TO	56
48	WENT TO THE	56
49	AND SO ON	54
50	AND I I	53
51	ER I LIKE	53
52	I HAVE I	53
53	I HAVE NO	53
54	I HAVE TO	53

The multi-word cluster lists identified promptly and easily the frequently occurring potential general extenders that might function as genuine general extenders across the levels of speaking proficiency in the corpus (see Section 4.2.3 for how to identify genuine general extenders). The lists were useful when taking out the most frequently occurring general extenders across the level of speaking proficiency in the preliminary analysis before answering the research question ‘how and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring general extenders in the English speaking test in the NICT JLE corpus?’ Raw numbers of frequency were normalised to words per million to facilitate comparison because the total running words in sub-sets across the levels of speaking proficiency were different from each other.

4.2.2.2 Concordance

A concordance, called Concord in Wordsmith Tools, is a useful tool to allow an easy search of a node word. It collects all the lines including the node word or multi-word cluster in the corpus and displays them on the computer screen so that the node word or cluster appears in the centre with the co-texts before and after them (Hunston, 2002:39). The lines appearing on the screen are referred to as Key-Word-In-Context (KWIC) concordances (O’Keeffe et al., 2007:8). Figure 4.1 below shows sample concordance lines for *or something* from the NICT JLE Corpus.

Concordances were useful in the preliminary analysis when identifying genuine general extenders; they enabled the author to see the co-texts around the potential general extenders forms easily and promptly and identify whether each of the

potential general extenders indeed functioned as genuine general extenders (see Section 4.2.3 for details).

Figure 4.1 Concordance lines for *or something* from the NICT JLE Corpus

1	here until you know, midnight	<i>or something</i>	and went back to home and
2	Er three hours	<i>or something.</i>	I'm gonna sleep
3	have chance to get the some title	<i>or something</i>	by running or like hitting
4	maybe I inform this to the clerk	<i>or something.</i>	Yeah. But just
5	doing small things, reading books	<i>or something.</i>	And also, I have to do the
6	or er to work for a estate	<i>or something.</i>	So he is trying doing do
7	mm the small short shelf bookshelf	<i>or something</i>	like that. And mm the C D
8	agencies offering cheaper air ticket	<i>or something</i>	like that. And I al also

Concordance was also useful in the main corpus-based research. The lines provided co-text surrounding the most frequently occurring general extenders and facilitated the exploration of general extenders in the corpus in the following two ways: firstly, concordance made it easy to investigate the positioning of general extenders in turn-taking in the quantitative approach; all the lines including the target general extender form were collected automatically and they appeared on the screen with the general extender in the centre of the line so that the author was able to identify the typical positions of the general extender easily. The tool served to answer the third subsidiary research question ‘what are typical textual features with regard to co-occurring words and positions of the general extenders?’, exploring what the position of general extenders in turn-taking would contribute to discourse construction in the speaking test. Secondly, concordance showed co-text surrounding the target general extender easily and promptly in the large data set across speaking proficiency levels and task types, which enabled the author to make a functional exploration of general extenders in context efficiently.

The concordance tool also yields a collocate list to the left and to the right from the node word (Collocate lists for the frequently-occurring general extenders are shown in Chapters 6, 7 and 8 respectively). A collocate list shows most frequently occurring words which are statistically significant around the node word (adapted from O’Keeffe et al., 2007:14). In this study, words which occurred five

words left and right hand sides of the general extenders within the same sentence were included in the collocate list. It made it easier to investigate what the typical co-occurring words with general extenders were and what the co-occurrence would yield interpersonal and interactional meanings in the speaking test.

4.2.2.3 Description of statistics for frequencies

After identifying the most frequently occurring general extenders in the multi-word cluster lists and concordances, frequencies of each of the general extender forms focused on in each chapter (Chapters 6, 7 and 8) were normalised to words per million (wpm) to make it easy to compare them across the speaking proficiency levels and task types.

In order to find out the causes of the general frequency of each of the general extenders, the number of examinees who use the general extenders was counted, and the density of the general extender forms in the spoken texts of those who use them was investigated. With regard to the number of examinees who use the general extender, the result was shown as a percentage.

With regard to density, how many times the examinees use it was looked at. Density is a mean value of the number of the specific general extender form used by each of the examinees, which was counted and normalised into wpm based on the number of running words uttered by each of the examinees because the number of running words uttered by each of them varied. Then the mean average was calculated at each level of speaking proficiency in the method that the total number of the specific general extender in wpm was divided by the number of examinees who used the general extender at each of the speaking proficiency levels.

Amongst those who use the general extender, there may be some examinees who use it much more frequently than the other examinees. If that is the case, the figure of general frequency may be skewed and it may not represent the characteristics of the way of using the general extender at the specific speaking proficiency level. In order to avoid the problem, the dispersion of those who use the general extender in each of the speaking proficiency levels is investigated. It is presented by standard deviation, which is a quantity to express the spread of variability from the mean value.

4.2.3 Choice of general extenders to be studied

This section demonstrates how the author identified the most frequently occurring general extender forms (*or something (like that)*, *and stuff (like that)*, *and so on*) in the corpus to be the focus in this study.

Multi-word cluster frequency lists were generated in order to search general extender forms occurring at each level of speaking proficiency (lower, intermediate and higher levels) in the corpus (See Table 4.6 for example). The author needed to distinguish genuine general extenders from potential general extenders because sometimes the cluster was not used a general extender as defined in Section 2.3. In order to make this distinction, concordance lines were run and genuine general extenders were counted manually. In the concordance lines below (Figure 4.2), for example, the cluster *and so on* on line 3 does not function as a general extender; *and* and *so* are employed as discourse markers and *on* is part of prepositional phrase *on their way*.

Figure 4.2 Concordance lines for *and so on* from the NICT JLE Corpus

1	have to clean up my room	<i>and so on.</i>	So I really don't have time to go out
2	and then cultural studies	<i>and so on.</i>	Yeah. The life is really interesting.
3	they could find shelter.	<i>And so on</i>	their way in the car, they found a hotel.
4	're wearing beach sandals	<i>and so on.</i>	Uh the I was the only person wearing
5	, just I drawing flowers	<i>and so on</i>	just for practice.

After manually counting the genuine general extenders in the concordance lines, the occurrence of general extenders was normalised to the occurrence per million words (wpm) at each level to facilitate comparison amongst the different speaking proficiency levels in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 General extender forms across speaking proficiency levels in the NICT JLE Corpus

level	Lower		Intermediate		Higher	
	forms	Wpm	forms	wpm	forms	Wpm
1	and so on	332.2	or something (like that)	302.4	or something (like that)	542.6
2	et cetera	43.1	and so on	162.3	and stuff (like that)	147.6
3	or something (like that)	30.8	or so	117.8	or so	75.8
4			something like that	45.6	or anything	63.8
5			et cetera	20.0	something like that	43.9
6			and something (like that)	13.3	and so on	35.9
7			or anything	8.9	and everything	31.9
8			that kind of thing/things	3.3	stuff like that	27.9
9			and everything	2.2	and things (like that)	31.9
10			kind of stuff/stuffs	2.2	things like that	19.9
11			or that kind of thing/things	2.2	or anything like that	16.0
12			or whatever	2.2	that kind of things	16.0
13			and kind of thing	1.1	or things like that	12.0
14			and stuff	1.1	or whatever	12.0
15			and that kind of thing	1.1	and something like that	8.0
16			kind of things	1.1	and that kind of stuff/stuffs	8.0
17			or anything like that	1.1	and that kind of things	8.0
18			or kind of thing	1.1	or that kind of stuff	8.0
19			or such kind of things	1.1	those kind of stuffs	8.0
20			these kind of things	1.1	and sort of things	4.0
21			things like that	1.1	kind of stuff	4.0
22					kind of thing	4.0
23					or kind of thing	4.0
24					or such things	4.0
25					or something else	4.0
26					or stuff like that	4.0
27					or that kind of	4.0
28					or that kind of thing	4.0
29					or the those kind of stuffs	4.0
30					or whatever like	4.0

Table 4.7 Cont.

31					that sort of things	4.0
32					those kind of things	4.0
Total		406.0		692.6		1169.1

The cut-off point was set at 100wpm in Table 4.7 to ensure representativeness of the examinees' spoken texts. At each speaking proficiency level, the total occurrence of each of the different words (types) that occurred 100wpm or more amounted to 90 per cent of the total number of all running words (tokens) at each level of speaking proficiency in the corpus. Secondly it is because their general frequency was widely different across the levels of speaking proficiency. For instance, in Table 4.7 above, *and so on* occurred most frequently at the lower level but less frequently at the higher level. It provides insights with regard to the different characteristics of the JUEs' use of general extenders across speaking proficiency levels.

Or so is an exception and it was not dealt with in this study. It is because although it occurred more than 100 wpm at the intermediate level, 35 *or so* out of all 106 *or so* in row number (33.0%) were uttered by one examinee. It can be interpreted that its frequent occurrence at the intermediate level is due to his idiolect. Deducting his 35 *or so* from all the occurrence of *or so* at the intermediate level resulted in 79.2 wpm. This was below the cut-off point in this study. Because of this, the author decided not to include it in this study.

4.3 Summary

To answer the research question 'what do Japanese teachers of English think about the use of general extenders spoken by JUEs in the language educational context?' in the qualitative approach, the semi-structured interview was implemented. Corpus linguistics was used to answer the main research question 'how and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring general extenders in the English speaking test in the NICT JLE corpus?' Multi-word cluster frequency lists and concordances were useful tools to search the most frequently occurring general extenders across the levels of speaking proficiency in the corpus. Concordances and co-occurring word lists were useful tools for the qualitative exploration of interpersonal and

discourse-oriented functions of the general extenders in the corpus. The three most frequently occurring general extender forms were chosen in the corpus-based approach; *or something (like that)*, *and stuff (like that)* and *and so on*. These forms and functions are investigated in Chapters 6, 7 and 8 respectively.

In the next chapter, the results and findings of Japanese English teachers' beliefs about the use of general extenders are discussed in order to prepare for experimentally applying the corpus-based findings in Chapters 6, 7 and 8 to language education.

Chapter 5 TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT GENERAL EXTENDERS

This chapter deals with the results and findings of the interview with language educators teaching Japanese users of English (JUEs) in Japan in order to answer the research question ‘what do Japanese teachers of English think about the use of general extenders spoken by JUEs in the context of language education?’

As has been reviewed (see Section 2.4), language teachers’ beliefs about spoken English have been studied, and their concerns have been reported. However, no study has focused on language teachers’ beliefs about general extenders in the Japanese educational context of English language. This chapter aims to elicit language teachers’ beliefs in order to prepare for combining experimentally the current corpus-based study with language education.

This chapter presents findings in the same order as the topics in the set of questions (see Section 4.1.2.2) regarding what the participants think about using general extenders in general, about teaching general extenders to JUEs, and about JUEs’ use of general extenders in speaking tests.

5.1 Teachers’ overall beliefs about general extenders

In this section, language teachers’ beliefs about what they think about using general extenders in general are discussed. Overall, it was found that although teachers were positive or neutral to general extenders as an ordinary and normal phenomenon in real life interactions, they were conscious of their formality and frequency.

To the question ‘do you use general extenders when you speak in English?’ at the outset, 7 out of all the 8 teachers answered yes, and all of them showed positive or neutral attitudes towards the use of general extenders to a next question as a probe ‘in what situation or context do you use general extenders?’ The functions highlighted by the teachers echoed work by Channell (1994) and Overstreet (1999) (see Section 2.3). For instance, the function of general extenders to make speech

economical depending on the assumed shared knowledge with a hearer was referred to, which is associated with Channell (1994), Overstreet (1999) and O’Keeffe et al. (2007), amongst others.

Eri: どんなときに使うかといったら、普通に言語学的に言って、言い切れないときですかね、全てのことを言い切れないときとか、ま、時間がないときとか、全てはつきりと言い切ることがさほど重要でもないときに、全ての、例えば、全ての Example をいいきらなくても、*Something like that* といえ、相手がおそらく分かるだろうと、こちらで思うときですよ。

Eri: I use general extenders, from the linguistic viewpoint generally, when I cannot state something clearly, for instance, when I cannot say everything, when I don’t have time, when I think that the hearer can understand what I mean just with *something like that* when it is not so important to say everything clearly and every example does not have to be said.

General extenders as a hedging marker was pointed out, which concurs with Channell (1994), Overstreet (1999) and Carter and McCarthy (2006), amongst others.

Interviewer (I): 例えば、社会の中でお話しする中において、他の人たちが general extenders を使うことについてどう思われますか?

Eri: あー、んー、使ったほうが自然に聞こえると思いますよね。で、プツンとおわるよりも、...(中略)...この general extenders を使ったほうが、やわらかくなるというか、きつくないので、...(中略)...あまりかたくならずに相手が嫌な思いをしないようにするためにも、便利な表現もあると思いますよね。

I: For instance, what do you think about other people using general extenders in social interaction?

Eri: Uh, um, I think that speech sounds more natural if using general extenders. And, rather than cutting off the speech, ...(section of text omitted)... using general extenders can make assertions softened or doesn’t make them harsh, ...(section of text omitted)..., so some expressions are useful in that, for instance, the speaker can avoid being too formal without offending the hearer.

A function to show uncertainty of information, word choice or explanation was pointed out. This function has also been described in the previous studies (e.g., Channell (1994) and Overstreet (1999))

I: 日常会話のときや、プレゼンテーションの時もお使いになるとおっしゃいましたけれども、区別はありますか、日常会話のときはこの形を使いやすいなあとか、後あの、プレゼンテーションのときに使うとしたらこの形を使うなあ、なんていうのはありますか？

Jun: えー、どちらがどちらというわけではないんですけど、あの一、しっかり説明ができない、自分でその語彙が思いつかなかったり、表現できないときに使っちゃったりしますね。

I: You said that you use general extenders in everyday conversation and presentation. Do you have any distinction?, I mean, do you have any preference, like, you would tend to use particular general extender forms in everyday conversation, or, well, you would use particular general extender forms if you use general extenders in presentation?

Jun: Well, I don't mean which general extender forms for which context, but, well, I use general extenders when I cannot explain something very clearly, when a specific word doesn't come to my mind, or when I cannot express myself.

General extenders' function to fill a pause within a turn was referred to. It is associated with the previous studies such as Cheshire (2007).

(Answering the interviewer's question regarding in what situation she thinks general extenders would be used.)

Mari:それは、会話の中で自然に出てくるものなので、多分本人も意識しない、でも、会話を進めるために、つなげるっていうか、そういう意識があるので、ま、その、なんか口ごもっても別のその、あいまいな表現になっても、そういう表現をうまく利用して、なんか、潤滑油的に使っているんじゃないかなと思います。

Mari: I think general extenders are something that occur spontaneously in conversation, maybe a speaker her/himself would use them without intention, but to carry on conversation, s/he may link (something which s/he said to the

next by using general extenders), I would say, - I have such a notion. So, well, if s/he is stuck for a word, or well, the expression becomes vague, s/he may make the use of such expressions and use them, what you call it, as oiling the wheels for conversation.

These extracts above show that the teachers would not tend to have negative perceptions of the use of general extenders and that they were likely to regard the occurrence of general extenders and not speaking explicitly as inherent to social interaction. It can be interpreted that the results were similar to Timmis' (2002) and Goh's (2009) findings; both studies show that the teachers are aware of the prevalent use of spoken English grammar in informal spoken English, allowing for their positive attitude towards their students' encountering the use of spoken English grammar in real lives. These comments show that the teachers in the interview were also aware of general extenders and familiar to their useful functions in interactions.

However, all of the 7 teachers who had positive or neutral attitudes towards general extenders had a view that using general extenders in general would not be a problem if general extenders were not used too frequently, although it is not known from the interview results what each of them meant by 'too frequently'. Additionally, 6 of them (Eri, Hana, Jun, Mari, Risa, Sara) pointed out the context-sensitivity of general extenders. For instance, Jun said that he would distinguish the use of general extenders across various contexts.

I: まず、[Jun's real name] は英語でお話をされるときに、このような general extenders の形をお使いになりますか？

Jun: それは、日常会話でってことでしょうか、それともプレゼンテーションなどという意味でしょうか。

I: はい、どちらでも

Jun: どちらもということでしょうか。会話では、よく使います、はい。で、プレゼンテーションでは、あの一、なんていうんですかね、私工学部の出身で、あの、あんまり、こまかい、なんていうんですかね、省略するとき以外は、詳細をはっきり言ったほうがいいかと思うので、使わないようにしていますが、時々使ってると思います。日常会話ではよく使っていると思います。

I: First of all, do you use general extenders like these forms when you speak in English?

Jun: Do you mean in everyday conversation or in presentation and the like?

I: Yes, either,

Jun: Either is fine? In conversation, I often use them. Yes. And, in presentation, urm, what can I say, I was a former engineering student and, um, detailed, what can I say, except for omitting something, I think that it would be better to tell details explicitly, so I try not to use them; but I think I sometimes use them. In everyday conversation, I think I often use them.

The context-sensitivity of general extenders may be related to the findings in Evison et al. (2007), who found general extenders occur more frequently in conversation than in academic settings. It can be interpreted that the teachers in the interview may regard the frequency of general extenders across contexts as an important aspect of the appropriate use of general extenders. Risa, for instance, provided her view of negative impression of too frequent use of general extenders in the context where a speaker would be expected to speak precisely.

Risa: えっと、もっと正確に話をしなくてはいけないのに、こういうような *general extenders* を埋め草でつかうことによって、発話全体の内容が薄まってしまっているとか、要点がはっきりわからない発話になってしまっているときには、この人はこの人自信自分の言っていることをあまり理解しきれていないとか、自分の中で消化しきれていないんじゃないかなという印象をうけることがありますし、やたらと、あの *and so on* とか、*and things like that* とかっていうことで、文を締めくくっているのを聞いていると、なんかごまかしているような感じを受けます。

I: では、やたらと多用しすぎると、ごまかしているという印象を受けるということでしょうか。

Risa: そうですね、伝えていることが自分自身でよく理解できているのかとか、自分が言ったことに責任がもてるのかとか、自信を持って話をしてるのかなあ、という、なんかそういう疑いが生じますね。

Risa: Well, when, by using general extenders as fillers, the content of what the speaker is saying falls or the main point of what s/he is saying cannot be clear, I sometimes think that the speaker may not understand or 'digest' well

enough what s/he is saying. And when I hear someone cutting off her/his speech unduly with *and so on* or *and things like that*, I get an impression that s/he is talking her/his way out.

I: Do you mean that too frequent use gives an impression of faking the speaker's way through?

Risa: Yes, a doubt would occur to me such as 'does s/he understand well what s/he is conveying?', 'does s/he have responsibility for what s/he says?' or 'is s/he confident of what s/he says?'

The link between too frequent occurrence of general extenders and a possible decline in the quality of what the speaker says may be derived from their teaching experiences (see Section 4.1.2.1): all of them taught English at Japanese universities, which may be the reason why they may have been familiar with spoken English not only in informal contexts such as talking with friends or colleagues but also in relatively formal contexts such as making academic presentations. Because of this, they might be sensitive to the degree of frequency of general extenders used by each speaker across various contexts judged against their own standards.

In sum, the teachers were likely to be context-sensitive to general extenders and the result shows the complexity of their beliefs towards general extenders. In the next section, the teachers' beliefs about their students' use of general extenders in the context of language education is looked at.

5.2 Teachers' beliefs about teaching general extenders

This section deals with the second topic of the interview, regarding what teachers think about teaching general extenders to their students in order to interpret their beliefs about JUEs' use of general extenders in the context of language education. Overall, the teachers were likely to be concerned about their students' using general extenders too frequently by their standard. Eri and Ken provided their concern about their lower-level students' using *and so on* in the context of language education. Ken, for instance, said that he would not be willing to prompt his students

to use general extenders for pedagogical reasons, although he did not have any negative views on general extenders if they were not used too frequently.

(Answering the interviewer's question of what he thinks about teaching his students forms of general extenders.)

Ken: いきなりいろいろこういうのを教えてしまいますと、ちょっとよくないかなという思いがありますけども。簡単な表現に逃げてしまいそうに思いますけども。

Ken: It may not be good, I suppose, to teach these phrases all of a sudden without following the procedure. I think that they might avoid using more difficult expressions.

This is associated with Timmis' (2002) finding that language teachers put higher priority on dealing with core linguistic features of English in a classroom context than teaching spoken English grammar. The comment further illustrates that he was concerned that his students might exploit general extenders to avoid difficulties in producing speech in English, which might consequently discourage his students from making an effort to produce their speech adequately. It may be tentatively interpreted that teachers would accept that their students might be vague in the context of language education less than the teachers themselves would be outside of the teaching context, because of their concern that using general extenders might slow down their students' improvement of speech production. In line with this concern, Eri and Sara told their impression concerning their students' too frequent use of *and so on* especially at the lower level in their respective teaching contexts, although acknowledging the usefulness of general extenders in speech production (see Section 5.1). Sara, for instance, pointed out a negative effect of using *and so on* too frequently in a speaking class and its speaking test where one of the course aims was to improve explanatory skills in English.

Sara: 何でもかんでも *and so on* をつけたがってしまうんですね。なので、全然、その、具体的な説明が英語でなされていないということが多々あるので、(中略)できるだけ具体化、具体的なもので言ってくれ、というふうにはしています。

Sara: As (students) want to put *and so on* after anything, in many of the things they say, specific explanations are not made at all in English. (part of texts omitted) So I ask them to specify.

This is associated with the teachers' view in Section 5.1 that they were rather negative to 'too frequent' use of general extenders by their standard. Given their view, the teachers may be concerned that too frequent use of general extenders in the context of language education, too, may cause an impression that the speaker may want to avoid clarifying what s/he says. It is acknowledged that it is not possible to generalise the results because this is a small scale insight into teachers' beliefs about the use of general extenders and their frequency. Given the small scale insight, the qualitative result may modestly indicate the teachers' dilemma of the complexity of addressing the frequency of their students' use of general extenders in the classroom context.

In the previous studies, what the standard is of 'too frequent general extenders' spoken by JUEs in various contexts of language education has not yet been discussed. It has not been revealed, either, how frequently JUEs use *and so on* and other general extenders in their speech production, whether there are any differences across the levels of speaking proficiency, in what contexts they use general extenders and why. The teachers' comments gave an interesting insight into the corpus-based research involved in frequency and functions of general extenders used by JUEs.

Considering how general extenders are taught or learned, four teachers (Eri, Ken, Mari and Risa) shared their impression that general extenders might be acquired spontaneously, rather than be taught, in the language developmental process through their learning experiences as one of them stated.

Mari: そうですね、やっぱりこの、こういうのって、自分で耳にして、ああネイティブイングリッシュスピーカーがこういうふうに使っているのって自然に響くんだな、っていうようなことを、ある程度理解しないと、それを自分の中にも取り込めないんじゃないかと思いますね。だから、こういうふうのがあるよ、こういうふうに使うんだよ、っていうのをある程度学んだら、だんだんちょっとずつ、便利だな

あと思って使うんだと思いますけど、えっと、なので、会話に慣れてくればどんどん増えるという気がします。

Mari: Well I think that (L2 speakers) cannot take in things like this (i.e. general extenders) without encountering those which are used by native speakers of English and understand things like ‘if (general extenders are) used in this way by native speakers of English, they sound natural.’ So, I think, when they notice to some degree that things like this form (i.e. general extenders) exist and that the forms are used in this or that way, they may start to use the forms bit by bit, feeling that they are useful. Well, so, the more they get used to interactions, the more they use the forms.

It can be seen that the teacher thinks that a certain level of communicative competence may be needed to notice and understand how to use general extenders by encountering them. It reflects Kasper and Rose’s (2002) argument regarding the necessity of grammatical competence to develop pragmatic competence.

It is acknowledged that the teachers’ students and the JUEs in the corpus were not identical as has been said in Section 4.1.2.1; but, as a small experiment of linking corpus-based findings to language education, their beliefs were useful to consider how the corpus-based findings could be beneficial to teachers. The current study could then contribute to opening up the discussion regarding teachability of general extenders.

5.3 Teachers’ beliefs about general extenders in speaking tests

This section addresses the third part of the interview about teachers’ beliefs about general extenders in speaking tests. Overall it was found that the teachers were likely to be context-sensitive to JUEs’ use of general extenders in speaking tests. To a question about what they thought about JUEs’ using general extenders in speaking tests, four teachers (Hana, Mika, Ken and Mari) said they had no problem with the occurrence of general extenders, and four teachers (Hana, Jun, Ken and Risa) related

the occurrence of general extenders to spontaneity of speech production in real time processing in speaking tests, such as Hana as shown below;

(Answering the interviewer's question about what she thinks about the use of general extenders in speaking tests,)

Hana: その場で英語を話さなきゃいけないということで、話すときには、もし知っているんであればこういう general extenders みたいなのが出てきちゃうっていう感覚は、なんか、日本人母語話者としては何か分かるような気がして、（中略）、それが出てもいいかなっていう感じはしますね、テストでも。

Hana: As a native Japanese speaker, I sort of understand the sense that something like these general extenders occur, if a speaker knows how to use them, in the situation when having to speak in English spontaneously on the spot, (part of texts omitted), I feel it may be fine if they (general extenders) occur in tests.

It can be interpreted that the spontaneity of speech production is a key to tolerance of the occurrence of general extenders. Four teachers (Eri, Jun, Ken and Mari) associated the occurrence of general extenders with JUEs relatively at higher level in the context of speaking tests.

Mari: たぶん、レベルによるとは思いますけど、会話に慣れてる学生だったら使うと思います。慣れていなかったらその場でちょっと言いよどむ、で、さっと出てこないかもしれませんね。

Mari: Maybe, it may depend on students' (English) levels. I suppose students who are used to conversation may use them. If they are not, they may stumble over their words a bit and words may not come out promptly.

Additionally, three teachers (Jun, Ken and Mari) related the occurrence of general extenders to a strategy of using them as a filler in the spontaneous speech production. Ken, for example, provided his experience in his students' mock interview tests.

(Answering the interviewer's question about in what contexts of speaking tests he thinks JUEs would use general extenders.)

Ken: インタビュー形式で話すときに、何か説明してくださいっていったときに、一生懸命説明するわけですけども、学生が、そこで詰まったときとかに出てきますね。

Ken: In the interview, my students explain something very hard when being asked to explain something, and general extenders occur when they get stuck.

It is likely that general extenders were counted as a strategy at relatively higher level to fill gaps in their speech. This may be associated with arguments by Hasselgreen (2002) and Gilquin (2008) in that general extenders can be counted as a strategy to hold the floor, save time to produce speech and give an impression of being a fluent speaker. However, it has not been studied yet whether the use of general extender forms differ from each other across speaking proficiency levels and task types.

With regard to planned speech in speaking tests, on the other hand, some teachers (Hana, Jun and Sara) provided their view that the use of general extenders too frequently might be marked down by examiners in planned speech such as presentation tasks;

Jun: 一応フォーマルなやり取りを試験では期待されているでしょうから、そういう場では使わないほうがいいんじゃないかなーというふうに僕は思いますけど。

Jun: A formal interaction may be expected more or less in oral examinations, so I think it may be better for examinees to avoid using general extenders in such a context.

These findings may indicate the teachers' concern about using general extenders appropriately depending on various contexts.

Additionally, three teachers (Eri, Risa and Sara) said the acceptability of the occurrence of general extenders in speaking tests would also depend on their frequency, such as in the extract from Sara, for instance;

(Answering the interviewer's question about what she thinks about Japanese examinees' use of general extenders in speaking tests.)

Sara: 多用しない限りはいいと思います。

Sara: I think it is fine unless they are used too frequently.

As with their general views of general extenders in Section 5.1, the findings indicate that in speaking tests, too, the teachers would be context-sensitive to the frequency of general extenders judged by their own standards. The results can add deeper insights to Goh's (2009) finding that some Chinese and Singaporean teachers are concerned that advanced L2 users may be marked down in oral examinations for using spoken English grammar. The result in this interview may suggest more specifically that, in speaking tests, too, they were context-sensitive where the frequency of general extenders was concerned according to their own standards, while they were tolerant of JUEs' use of general extenders as fillers in spontaneous speech production. These qualitative results in the small scale survey all modestly indicate that the teachers might be concerned that JUEs' frequent use of general extenders might lessen the quality of their speech production, while they were aware of the complexity of the contextual elements involved in the occurrence of general extenders.

The research revealed teachers' concerns about the relationship between general extenders and contexts, which posed an interesting question in relation to JUEs' use of general extenders in the context of language education. However, the previous studies have not revealed yet in what contexts JUEs use general extenders in speaking tests and how they function in specific contexts. It was worth looking at how JUEs speak in the corpus-based study in order to provide language educators with detailed pictures of the relationship between the occurrence of general extenders and contexts where they occur. It is admitted again that the teachers' students and JUEs in the corpus were not identical, but the teachers' beliefs would serve as a preparation for attempting an experiment of linking corpus-based findings to language education in Chapter 9. The corpus-based study could contribute to opening up discussions on how to interpret JUEs' ways of using general extenders in the context of language education such as in speaking tests and classroom contexts.

5.4 Summary

To answer the first main research question ‘what do Japanese teachers of English think about the use of general extenders spoken by JUEs in the context of language education?’, the following four main points were found. Firstly, the teachers were not negative about the use of general extenders and were aware of the complexity of elements involved in the occurrence of general extenders. Secondly, however, some were not likely to be open to JUEs using general extenders in the context of language education than they would do outside of their teaching context. They seemed to be concerned that the frequent use of general extenders may lessen the quality of speech production as well as may cause negative effect on improving oral communication skills. Thirdly, some of them had the perception that how to use general extenders would be picked up spontaneously rather than being taught. Fourthly, the teachers were likely to be context-sensitive to the occurrence of general extenders as a filler in speaking tests.

It is acknowledged that the results are not generalizable due to the small scale of the research, but they raised starting points for considering how the corpus-based findings in the main part of the current study could be useful to language education as an experiment of linking the corpus-based findings to language education.

The next three chapters respectively deal with corpus-based findings and discussions of the frequently occurring general extenders (*or something (like that)*, *and stuff (like that)* and *and so on*) that were identified in Section 4.2.3, and Chapter 9 attempts to relate implications of the findings for language education.

Chapter 6 RESULTS AND FINDINGS OF *OR SOMETHING (LIKE THAT)*

Or something (like that) is the most frequently occurring general extender at the intermediate and higher levels in the corpus (see Section 4.2.3). This chapter addresses the use of *or something (like that)* spoken by Japanese users of English (JUEs) in order to answer the second research question ‘how and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring general extenders in the English speaking test in the NICT JLE corpus?’, which includes four subsidiary research questions, as has been posed in Chapter 1;

1. Are there any differences across speaking proficiency levels?
2. Are there any differences across task types?
3. What are typical textual features with regard to co-occurring words and positions of the general extenders?
4. What are the main functions of the general extenders?

In order to answer the research questions, this chapter consists of two parts. Firstly, quantitative analysis is conducted to investigate the frequency of *or something (like that)* and the typical textual features of *or something (like that)*. Next, the functions of *or something (like that)* are explored in the qualitative approach.

6.1 *Or something (like that)* - quantitative analysis

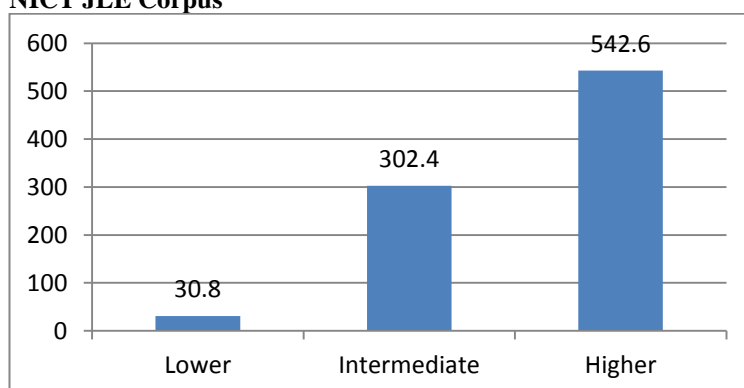
This section deals with firstly the frequency of *or something (like that)* across speaking proficiency levels and task types in order to answer the first and second subsidiary research questions above respectively. This is because the speaking proficiency levels and the nature of tasks can impact on the occurrence of *or something (like that)* and the characteristics may affect the JUEs’ use of general extenders.

6.1.1 Frequency of *or something (like that)*

6.1.1.1 Frequency across speaking proficiency levels

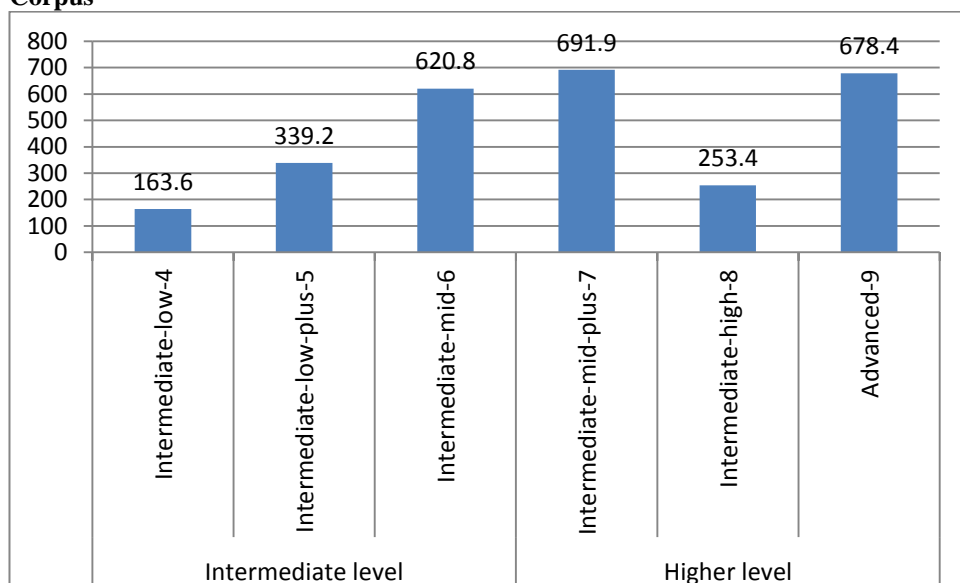
This section explores the differences across speaking proficiency levels with regard to frequency in order to find characteristics of *or something (like that)* used by JUEs in the corpus. In the preliminary analysis in Section 4.2.3, multi-word cluster lists were generated, potential general extenders were taken and genuine general extenders were counted in the concordance lines. It was found that *or something (like that)* was the most frequently occurring general extender form at the intermediate and higher levels, but it hardly ever occurred at the lower level (Figure 6.1). Due to its small number of occurrences at the lower level, this chapter focuses on *or something (like that)* at the intermediate and higher levels.

Figure 6.1 Frequency of *or something (like that)* (wpm) across speaking proficiency levels in the NICT JLE Corpus



In order to see more specifically how the frequency increases as the examinees' speaking proficiency levels rise, the data was stratified into SST bands (see Section 4.2.1 for SST bands), presented in Figure 6.2.

Figure 6.2 Frequency of *or something (like that)* (wpm) across SST bands in the NICT JLE Corpus



Two trends can be pinpointed in the figure above. The first one is that the frequency of *or something (like that)* surges from Intermediate-low-4 to Intermediate-mid-plus-7. The increasing occurrence of *or something (like that)* from Intermediate-low-4 to Intermediate-mid-6 may suggest the impact of the examinees' speaking proficiency levels on its frequency, which is in line with Hasselgreen's (2002, 2004) study that reveals a higher frequency of general extenders at the higher speaking proficiency level than at the lower one in her study. Allowing for its common occurrence in spoken English (Biber et al., 1999; Carter & McCarthy, 2006) as has been reviewed, the result may illustrate the examinees' awareness of spoken English and its use in their speech production in the speaking test as their speaking proficiency levels rise. It can be seen that as the examinees' speaking proficiency levels rise, it occurs more frequently in the corpus. Secondly, however, the difference of its frequency from Intermediate-mid-6 to Advanced-9 is not significant, although there is a sudden drop at Intermediate-high-8. It is not yet clear why this happens in contrast to the significant difference between Intermediate-low-4 and Intermediate-mid-plus-7. The general frequency does not reveal what is happening in the corpus data as Harrington (2008) and Murphy (2012) argue. In order to see what is happening behind the general frequency, next, the number of examinees that use *or*

something (like that) and the occurrence of *or something (like that)* per million words in each of the examinees' spoken data are looked at.

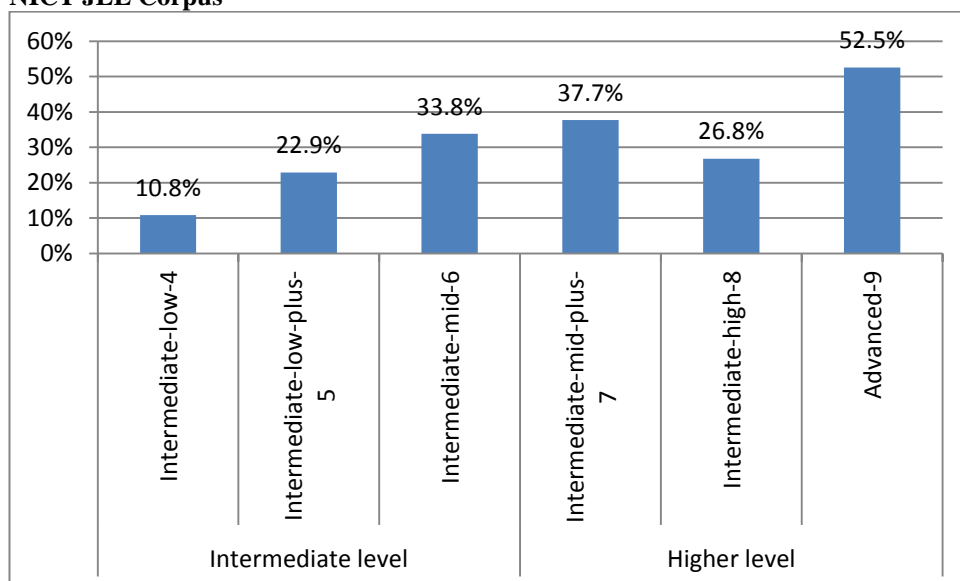
Below (Table 6.1) are descriptive statistics of *or something (like that)* at each of the SST bands. The number of examinees who use *or something (like that)* was counted and converted into the proportion of 100 examinees. Each of the examinees' frequency of *or something (like that)* out of the total number of her/his spoken texts was figured out and normalised to occurrence per million words.

Table 6.1 Descriptive statistics of *or something (like that)*

	Intermediate			Higher		
	Intermedi ate-low-4	Intermedi ate-low- plus-5	Intermedi ate-mid-6	Intermedi ate-mid- plus-7	Intermedi ate-high- 8	Advance d-9
The total number of examinees	482	236	130	77	56	40
The number of examinees who use <i>or something (like that)</i>	52	54	44	29	15	21
% of examinees who use <i>or something (like that)</i>	10.8	22.9	33.8	37.7	26.8	52.5
Minimum frequency (wpm)	0	0	0	0	0	0
Maximum frequency (wpm)	7677.5	6655.6	9183.7	7092.2	2568.5	3107.5
Standard deviation	766.5	1045.1	1499.8	1235.7	486.5	773.9
Mean frequency (wpm)	222.6	453.0	770.1	633.1	230.7	636.7

Table 6.1 and Figure 6.3 as a visual aid show that *or something (like that)* is employed by more than half of the examinees at Advanced-9, while it is employed by merely one third of the examinees at Intermediate-mid-6 and Intermediate-mid-plus-7. On the other hand, the mean frequency values of *or something (like that)* at these bands are similar to each other (770.1 at Intermediate-mid-6, 633.1 at Intermediate-mid-plus-7 and 636.7 at Advanced-9 in Table 6.1). This means that statistically, amongst those who use *or something (like that)*, it would occur more frequently at Intermediate-mid-6 and Intermediate-mid-plus-7 than at Advanced-9.

Figure 6.3 The proportion of examinees who use *or something (like that)* at each SST band in the NICT JLE Corpus



In order to examine how frequently *or something (like that)* occurs in each of the spoken texts of those who use it, the density of *or something (like that)* in the spoken texts of those examinees who used it was worked out (Table 6.2).

Table 6.2 Density of *or something (like that)* in the spoken texts of examinees who use it

Proficiency level categorized in this study	Intermediate			Higher		
SST Level	intermediate-low-4	intermediate-low-plus-5	intermediate-mid-6	intermediate-mid-plus-7	intermediate-high-8	Advanced-9
% of examinees who used <i>or something (like that)</i>	10.8	22.9	33.8	37.7	26.8	52.5
Mean (wpm)	2063.4	1979.7	2275.4	1681.0	861.2	1212.8
Standard Deviation	1291.9	1328.1	1800.9	1523.1	589.9	659.0
Minimum (wpm)	899.3	723.1	695.4	560.5	426.3	548.2
Maximum (wpm)	7677.5	6655.6	9183.7	7092.2	2568.5	3107.5

The result is shown in the bars on the left of each SST band in Figure 6.4. At the same time, it was revealed that, amongst the examinees who use *or something (like that)*, one examinee at Intermediate-low-4 and one at Intermediate-mid-plus-7, and two examinees at Intermediate-low-plus-5 and two at Intermediate-mid-6 employed

or something (like that) over three standard deviations (see Section 4.2.2 for standard deviation). However, their use of *or something (like that)* over three standard deviations does not affect the comparison of the density between the levels of speaking proficiency, as is shown in the right hand columns at each SST band in Figure 6.4 below to show the result excluding their use of *or something (like that)*.

Figure 6.4 Density of *or something (like that)* of those who use it at each SST band in the NICT JLE Corpus (wpm)

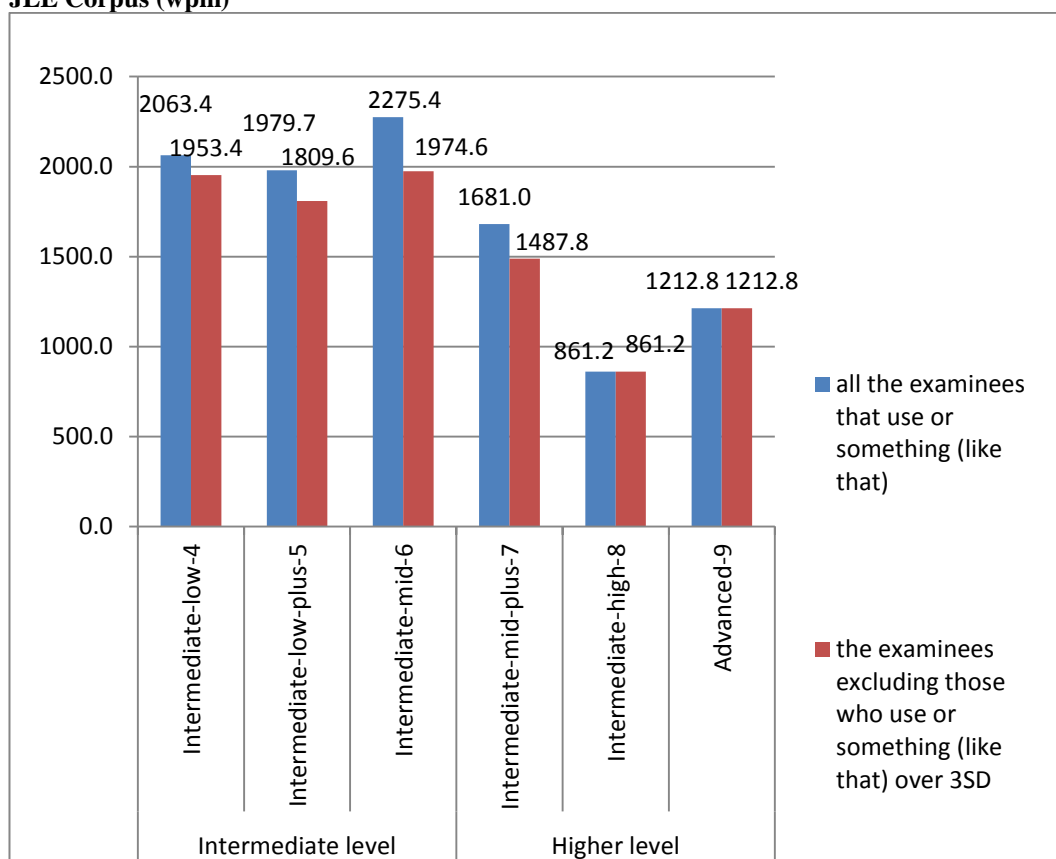


Figure 6.4 shows that the density of *or something (like that)* in the spoken texts of the examinees who use it at Advanced-9 is lower than that at Intermediate-mid-6 and Intermediate-mid-plus-7, as has been statistically predicted. As a result of the proportion of examinees who use *or something (like that)* and its density in the spoken texts of each of the examinees who use it, it is revealed that, as the speaking proficiency levels rise, the proportion of examinees who use *or something (like that)* increases, but they use it at a low density. Although the general frequency of *or something (like that)* at these three SST bands in Figure 6.2 is similar to each other,

the proportion of examinees who use it and its density are different across the levels of speaking proficiency. The finding provides the detailed description that *or something (like that)* occurs differently in JUEs' spoken texts across the levels of speaking proficiency, which can show the complex structure of the frequency of general extenders used by JUEs.

To sum up, in terms of different uses of *or something (like that)* across speaking proficiency levels, as the speaking proficiency levels rise, the general frequency of *or something (like that)* rises because the proportion of examinees who use it increases while the density of *or something (like that)* in the spoken texts of the examinees who use it decreases. The quantitative result can suggest that, because of the multifaceted nature of the data, the analyses of the proportion of those who use the linguistic item and its density in each of the examinee's spoken texts help us to understand what makes the findings representative in the corpus.

6.1.1.2 Frequency across task types

Next, the frequency of *or something (like that)* is looked at across task types in order to answer the second subsidiary research question 'are there any differences across task types?' This is because the occurrence of *or something (like that)* across task types has not been studied previously and secondly because the nature of tasks can impact on its functions and the investigation will be helpful when exploring the functions in Section 6.2. In order to gain insight into the frequency across task types, the concordance lines for *or something* were run across task types and speaking proficiency levels and the number of *or something (like that)* was counted manually in the concordance lines. Below is a result normalised into words per million (Figure 6.5).

Figure 6.5 Frequency of *or something (like that)* (wpm) across task types and speaking proficiency levels in the NICT JLE Corpus

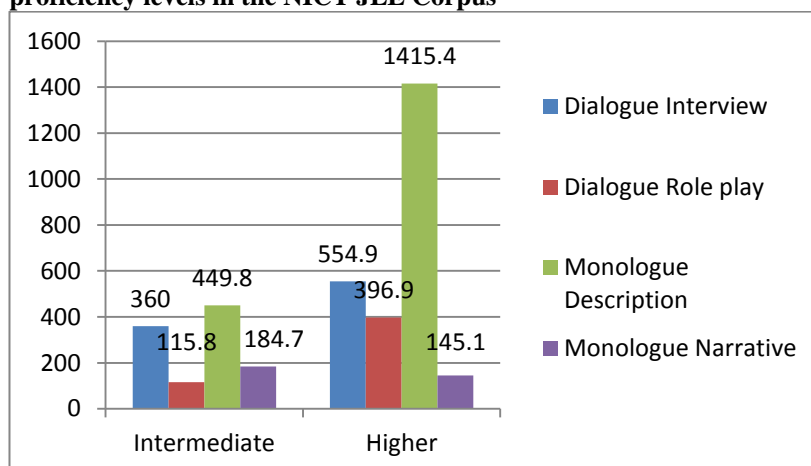


Figure 6.5 shows clearly that *or something (like that)* occurs in the task of description at the higher level. Moreover in comparison with its occurrence in the same monologic task of narrative, the occurrence of *or something (like that)* is much higher in the task of description, than in the narrative, although in both tasks visual knowledge is shared between the examinees and examiners because both of them can see the pictures on the task cards. Considering the nature of the tasks, the result may be derived from the degree to which the examinees' uncertainty is shown. In the narrative, on the one hand, the examinees may not have to show uncertainty or probability explicitly because they are expected to use imagination when making up a story following the story line shown in the series of pictures. In the task of description, on the other hand, the examinees are expected to describe what can be seen precisely in real time processing for assessment. The examinees, however, may sometimes want to show their uncertainty as to how they express what they see in the picture or their possible interpretation of what is happening in the picture in order to conduct the task and to produce their speech as sample language for assessment. *Or something (like that)* may fit in with the examinees' need to signal great care of their speech production in order to show clearly their uncertainty (Channell, 1994; Overstreet, 1999) and to avoid risk of being assessed negatively in case what they say is not what is expected by the examiner. In the speaking test, *or something (like that)* may serve as a strategy of a speaker (Carter & McCarthy, 2006:202) to produce as much sample language as possible as a goal of the speaking test while saving their

face in the task of description; what its functions have not been clear from the quantitative result, which will be explored in Section 6.2 together with typical co-occurring words in the next section. The contribution of this quantitative finding is that the nature of tasks can impact on the occurrence of *or something (like that)*, which has not been revealed in the previous studies in L2 users' spoken corpora. Barlow (2005), who argues the necessity of observing different aspects of language production across genres, has suggested that stratification of the data not only into text types but task types is useful to explore typical functions in the specific contexts of each task.

In summary, *or something (like that)* is typical of the tasks of description at the higher level, and it is interpreted that *or something (like that)* may be one of the useful strategies in the spontaneous speech production in the speaking test for the examinees. It is revealed that task types, in addition to the examinees' speaking proficiency levels, impact on the occurrence of *or something (like that)*. The relevance of the nature of tasks and the frequency of general extenders has not been investigated in the previous studies and the finding can contribute to understanding JUEs' use of *or something (like that)* in more depth to solve the research question. Additionally, the view will open up the argument that stratifying the data into task types is also useful in L2 users' corpus-based study to explore how and why general extenders are used.

The next section deals with quantitative analyses on typical textual features of *or something (like that)* to explore how it occurs in the speaking test.

6.1.2 Frequency and co-occurring words with *or something (like that)*

In order to answer part of the third subsidiary research question 'what are typical textual features with regard to co-occurring words and positions of *or something (like that)*?', a quantitative analysis of co-occurring words with *or something* was conducted. Looking at the co-occurring words with *or something (like that)* was a useful starting point for functional examination in the corpus linguistic approach in order 'to notice patterns relating to the way in which a lexical item or a

sequence is used in context’ (O’Keeffe et al., 2011:14). It was also useful to examine co-occurring discourse markers with *or something (like that)* because general extenders tend to occur with discourse markers and they support the functions of each other (Aijmer, 2002; Cheshire, 2007).

Table 6.3 shows the top ten co-occurring words with *or something* at the intermediate and higher levels. Words which occurred in the five words from the left and right hand sides of *or something (like that)*, within the same sentence, were taken (see Section 4.2.2.2). The number of each of the frequently occurring words on the left and right of *or something (like that)* was normalised to occurrence per 100 *or something (like that)*, and their proportion on the left hand side of *or something (like that)* is shown in the column ‘Total Left’, one on its right hand side is shown in the column ‘Total Right’ and one on both of its right and left hand sides is shown in the column ‘Total’.

Table 6.3 The top ten most frequently occurring words within five words on the left and right of *or something* (ratio to 100 *or something*) in the NICT JLE Corpus

Intermediate					Higher				
	Word	Total	Total Left	Total Right		Word	Total	Total Left	Total Right
1	LIKE	33.8	6.6	27.2	1	LIKE	32.4	14	18.4
2	THAT	25	0.4	24.6	2	THAT	25	2.9	22.1
3	THE	17.3	15.8	1.5	3	THE	16.9	12.5	4.4
4	AND	14	7.4	6.6	4	YOU	10.3	9.6	0.7
5	FOR	8.5	7	1.5	5	FOR	8.1	7.4	0.7
6	SOME	7.4	6.3	1.1	6	MAYBE	7.4	6.6	0.7
7	MAYBE	6.3	5.5	0.7	6	AND	7.4	5.1	2.2
7	URR	6.3	4.4	1.8	8	SOME	6.6	5.9	0.7
9	HAVE	4.4	3.7	0.7	9	KNOW	5.9	5.9	0
10	ARE	4	4	0	10	PROBABLY	5.1	5.1	0
					10	ABOUT	5.1	5.1	0

Table 6.3 shows that possible hedging expressions occur frequently with *or something*; *like*, *maybe*, *probably*, *know* and *about*. Firstly, *like* appears on the list at both speaking proficiency levels. *Like* on the right hand side is part of a 4-word-unit *or something like that*. The concordance lines can be seen below (Figure 6.6 for the intermediate level and Figure 6.7 for the higher level). Its forms and functions are discussed in this chapter together with *or something*.

Figure 6.6 Concordance lines for *like* occurring after *or something* at the intermediate level from the NICT JLE Corpus

1 us to do this or just to do it *or something like that*. We can do every
 2 or the reading newspapers *or something like that*. But it should be it
 3 needed to call the my JAF *or something like that* or fixing company. And
 4 uh hobby or fitness gym *or something like that*. I'm I'm looking for a
 5 if I send my application *or something like that*, maybe the company

Figure 6.7 Concordance lines for *like* occurring after *or something* at the higher level from the NICT JLE Corpus

1 an understood my situation *or something like that*. Mmm. Oh. Of c in
 2 then had nabe party, *or something like that*. Yeah. Hm. You are
 3 by word proce urr Word *or something like that*. It's very near to that. A
 4 our <laughter>*or something*</laughter> *like that*. But em o ouden
 5 they want to have a party *or something like that*. They want to send a

In the light of *like* within five words on the left hand side of *or something*, it is not yet clear whether it is genuine hedging expression. It needs an in-depth exploration on the function of *like* occurring with *or something* in Section 6.2.

Secondly, in Table 6.3, *know* and *about* are possible hedging expressions, such as *know* being part of *I don't know* and *about* being an approximator (e.g., *about 7pm*). But, it is not yet clear whether they are genuine hedging expressions. An in-depth exploration of the concordance lines is conducted in Section 6.2.

Finally, *maybe* appears at both levels and *probably* at the higher level, both of which mark a speaker's uncertainty. Extract 6.1 below is a sample to show how *maybe* occurs with *or something*; more concordance lines are presented later in Section 6.2.

Extract 6.1

Exee: **Maybe** travel around Europe *or something*.

[NICT JLE Corpus file 00075]

The finding pertains to Cheshire (2007), who found the frequent occurrence of pragmatic markers to show a speaker's uncertainty with disjunctive general extenders (general extender forms starting with *or*; see Section 2.3). Looking at the

positions of *maybe* and *probably*, it occurs at the left hand side of *or something*. It indicates that *maybe* and *probably* can be associated with listing exemplars for *or something*. The typical occurrence of *maybe* and *probably* with *or something* tentatively suggests that *or something* is related to the examinees' uncertainty or lack of confidence when listing exemplars. Yet, the quantitative finding on its own is not particularly revealing with regard to how they co-occur in the examinees' speech and what the co-occurrence means to functions of *or something (like that)*. The concordance lines for *maybe* and *probably* and *or something* are looked at in order to investigate the main functions of *or something (like that)* in the speaking test in Section 6.2.

In sum, the quantitative analysis at the pragmatic level has revealed that the occurrence of hedging expressions is significant to *or something* both at the intermediate and higher levels. A tentative suggestion is that the function of *or something (like that)* may be related to the examinees' uncertainty or lack of confidence in what they say. In order to have an in-depth analysis of its functions, the qualitative analysis is conducted in concordance lines and co-texts in Section 6.2.

In the next section, the quantitative analysis moves on to the discourse level, investigating the positioning of *or something (like that)*.

6.1.3 Frequency and positioning of *or something (like that)*

This section investigates how the JUEs' *or something (like that)* serve to construct the discourse in the speaking test in order to answer part of the third subsidiary research question 'what are typical textual features with regard to co-occurring words and positions of *or something (like that)*?'.

As has been reviewed in Section 2.3, general extenders have been argued to be related to a speaker's discourse construction, such as a marker to keep talking (Dubois, 1993; Tagliamonte & Denis, 2010) and to terminate a speaker's turn (Jefferson, 1990; Dubois, 1993; Winter & Norrby, 2000; Cheshire, 2007; Tagliamonte & Denis, 2010). Knowing the typical position of *or something (like that)* in the quantitative approach was useful to notice its discourse-oriented functions in the speaking test, which is to be discussed in the qualitative approach in

Section 6.2. Before the quantitative investigation, patterns of positioning of *or something (like that)* in the examinees' turn that are observed in the corpus are described briefly with some sample extracts; after that, the quantitative results of its typical positioning in the examinees' spoken discourse are presented and their implication is discussed.

Patterns of positions of *or something (like that)* are categorised into two groups based on its spatial placement; turn-final and turn-internal positions. Sample extracts are presented below one by one. Firstly, *or something (like that)* occurs at the turn-final position. The examinee's *or something* occurs in line 3 in Extract 6.2 below. Immediately after that, her turn is taken by the examiner in line 4, who asks another question.

Extract 6.2

- | | | |
|---|-----------------------------|--|
| 1 | Examiner (henceforth Exer): | So when do you expect to graduate? |
| 2 | Examinee (henceforth Exee): | Um I have to finish writing by January |
| 3 | | twentieth <i>or something</i> . |
| 4 | Exer: | So hopefully next spring, you will |
| 5 | | graduate? |
| 6 | Exee: | I'm sure. Yeah. |

[NICT JLE Corpus file 00800]

Next, *or something (like that)* can be observed in the examinees' turn-internal position. In Extract 6.3 below, the examinee continues his turn immediately after employing *or something like that* in line 5.

Extract 6.3

- | | | |
|---|-------|--|
| 1 | Exee: | Ah yes, ah. The other day, I received a direct mail from ah direct |
| 2 | | mail from the ah clothing shop, |
| 3 | Exer: | Mh-hmm. |
| 4 | Exee: | which I used to use. And ah they are offering the very good |
| 5 | | discount for their for some business suits <i>or something like that</i> . |
| 6 | | So ahm I am thinking to visit there and ah maybe, if possible, I |

7 may buy something.

[NICT JLE Corpus file 01077]

Sometimes the examiner backchannels immediately after the examinee's *or something (like that)*, but the examinee continues to talk. In Extract 6.4, for example, the examinee approximates the cost for eating out (*one thousand yen*) with *or something* in line 5. Although in line 6 the examiner inserts backchannels *Mh-hmm* and *Um hm* immediately after that, the examinee continues to talk in line 7.

Extract 6.4

- 1 Exee: Yes. Mm but the um <.></.> if if I take dinners outside,
- 2 Exer: Hmm
- 3 Exee: it costs,
- 4 Exer: <laughter>Um</laughter>.
- 5 Exee: yeah, one thousand one thousand yen *or something*.
- 6 Exer: **Mh-hmm. Um hm.**
- 7 Exee: So yeah, and not s not so good taste when outside.

[NICT JLE Corpus file 00854]

There is a case when *or something (like that)* is followed by her/his fillers (*um*) or discourse markers (*and, or*), but their turn is taken by the examiners as can be seen in Extract 6.5.

Extract 6.5

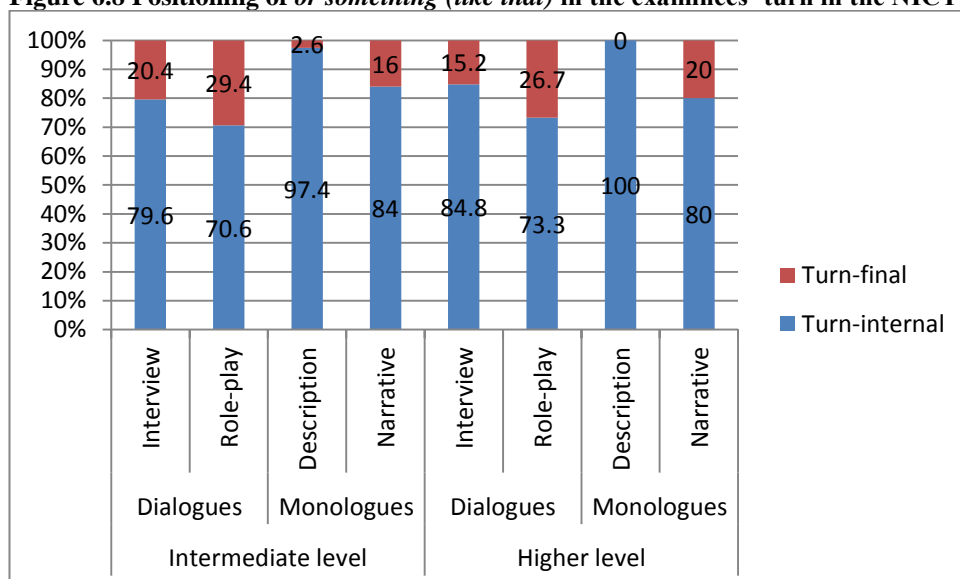
- 1 Exee: But maybe do you know "Bridget Jones"?
- 2 Exer: Err.
- 3 Exee: *Or something.* **Yeah**.
- 4 Exer: It's very popular now
- 5 Exee: Yeah. Popular now. Yeah.
- 6 Exer: Uum.
- 7 Exee: So I wanted to watch.
- 8 Exer: Um.

[NICT JLE Corpus file 00753]

The examinee employs *or something* in line 3 after one exemplar ‘Bridget Jones’ in line 1. His *Yeah* overlaps with the examiner’s *it’s* in line 4 and eventually his turn is taken, but he continues to talk about the topic in lines 5 and 7. There are a few possible interpretations of what is happening in line 3; *Yeah* may be employed to save time for planning his next utterance or to avoid silence and wait for the examiner to take the turn. Acknowledging these possibilities, *or something* in this case is counted as at the turn-internal position because of the spatial reason as mentioned at the outset.

Now, the section moves on to the quantitative results. In the concordance lines for *or something (like that)*, the proportion of its positions spoken by the examinees in the corpus was counted manually. Figure 6.8 shows that *or something (like that)* typically occurs in the examinees’ turn-internal position.

Figure 6.8 Positioning of *or something (like that)* in the examinees’ turn in the NICT JLE Corpus



The characteristic is similar at both speaking proficiency levels in all the task types. In light of the monologic tasks, a possibility of their turn being taken may be low because the spoken texts in the tasks are monologic; however, the result is still interesting because the examinees’ *or something (like that)* does not seem to be counted as a signal marking the end of their tasks. In light of the dialogic tasks, where the examinees have much more risk of their turn being taken by the examiner, their *or something (like that)* does not seem to trigger a transition-relevance place.

Considering the quantitative finding of the occurrence of uncertainty markers with *or something* in the previous section, a tentative suggestion would be that *or something (like that)* contributes to the examinees' turn-holding device in the context where they show uncertainty in the speaking test and produce their speech for assessment, where the time and floor are mainly managed by the examiners. The finding from the quantitative analysis does not yet reveal clearly how the typical position contributes to the examinees' discourse management. In the next section, an in-depth exploration of concordance lines and co-texts is conducted in the qualitative approach to explore the discourse-oriented function of *or something (like that)*.

This section has identified the typical textual features with regard to co-occurring words and positioning in the quantitative approach: *or something (like that)* typically occurs at the turn-internal position in the corpus. This quantitative analysis seems to indicate that *or something (like that)* serves as a turn-holding device in the examinees' speech in the speaking test. The finding contributes to opening up the views of L2 users' *or something (like that)* at the pragmatic level to one at the discourse level.

Next a close exploration of concordance lines and co-texts is conducted in order to detail what interpersonal and discourse-oriented meanings of the typical features of *or something (like that)* are used by the JUEs.

6.2 *Or something (like that)* - qualitative analysis

Building on the quantitative findings in the previous section with regard to hedging expressions to show uncertainty occurring with *or something* and its typical position, this section deals with answering the last subsidiary research question 'what are the main functions of *or something (like that)*?' In order to answer the question, this section looks at the occurrence of the uncertainty markers with *or something (like that)* in the concordance lines so that the function of *or something (like that)* could be established. Allowing for multi-functionality of general extenders (Cheshire, 2007; Overstreet, 1999, 2011), it is noted that typical functions explored in this section do not mean to be the only functions of *or something (like that)* in the corpus.

The concordance lines were run to find how the uncertainty markers occur with *or something (like that)*, and it was revealed that *maybe* and *like* are the most frequently occurring uncertainty markers with *or something (like that)* at both levels, followed by other expressions to show uncertainty such as *I think* and *I don't know* (Table 6.4). Their concordance lines and extracts are shown below Table 6.4, focusing on *maybe*, *like* and other expressions on the list respectively, in order to look at *or something (like that)* in context and explore its functions.

Table 6.4 Hedging expressions occurring with *or something (like that)* in the NICT JLE Corpus

Intermediate	Occur.	%	Higher	Occur.	%
Maybe	34	37.4	like	30	47.6
Like	26	28.6	maybe	19	30.2
I think	7	7.7	I think	11	17.5
I don't know	6	6.6	probably	6	9.5
how can I say	4	4.4	I don't know	5	7.9
I don't know in detail/the detail	2	2.2	I'm not sure	3	4.8
I'm not sure	2	2.2	I guess	2	3.2
nandarouna/ne (* What's this?)	2	2.2	kind of	2	3.2
About	1	1.1	perhaps	2	3.2
I can't describe	1	1.1	about	1	1.6
how do I say	1	1.1	among	1	1.6
I don't know how to say it	1	1.1	around	1	1.6
I don't know why	1	1.1	how do you say	1	1.6
I guess	1	1.1	how to call this	1	1.6
I wonder	1	1.1	I don't know how to say it	1	1.6
kind of	1	1.1	I don't know why	1	1.6
Total	91	100	I forgot	1	1.6
			I forgot what's exactly called	1	1.6
			nani (*What's this?)	1	1.6
			sort of	1	1.6
			type of	1	1.6
			what shall I say	1	1.6
			what's that	1	1.6
			Total	63	100

(*) Asterisk in brackets refers to the author's English interpretation in the particular co-texts.

Firstly, the co-occurrence of *maybe* and *or something (like that)* excerpted from the intermediate level is shown in Figure 6.9 and one excerpted from the higher level is shown in Figure 6.10. *Maybe* in the concordance lines seems to show that what the examinees are saying is not fact, but their uncertainty, lack of confidence, imagination or ideas are included. The co-occurrence in context indicates that *or something (like that)* functions to downplay the assertiveness due to their uncertainty

or lack of confidence (Overstreet, 1999; Drave, 2001; Terraschke & Holmes, 2007). This is associated with observing Grice's (1975) maxim of quality in that the examinees are showing their uncertainty or lack of confidence in what they say (Channell, 1994; Overstreet, 1999; Cheshire, 2007) in order to contribute to interaction with the examiners.

Figure 6.9 Concordance lines for *or something* occurring with *maybe* at the intermediate level from the NICT JLE Corpus

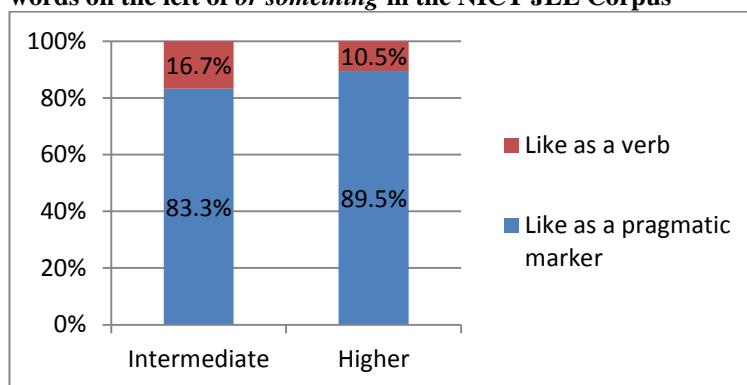
- 1 **maybe** I <.></.> inform this to <.></.> the clerk *or something.*
- 2 So **maybe** I will urr I'm going out for drinking or dinner *or something.*
- 3 **Maybe** uhm <.></.> the owner of the apartment don't like animals *or something.*
- 4 a <.></.> mhmm <.></.> tru truck or <.></.> **maybe** Triple A *or something.*
- 5 cooking egg's dish and another uhm <.></.> another **maybe** stew *or something.*

Figure 6.10 Concordance lines for *or something* occurring with *maybe* at the higher level from the NICT JLE Corpus

- 1 Well **maybe** he want people to think that he's cool *or something.*
- 2 I was **maybe** in kindergarten *or something.*
- 3 I thought that **maybe** they didn't have time to do it in their homes *or something.*
- 4 are talking about their families, **maybe** about their husbands *or something.*
- 5 I have to er wake up as usual. So **maybe** around eight-thirty *or something.*

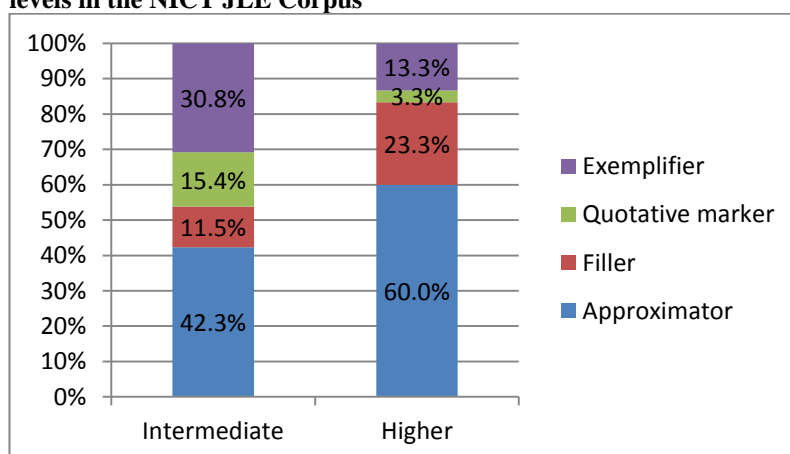
Secondly, the concordance lines for the occurrence of *like*, which has been found in Section 6.1.2 to occur most frequently on the left hand side of *or something* (*like that*), are looked at in order to explore the function of *or something* (*like that*) in the context. It is revealed that more than 80 per cent of *like* on the left hand side of *or something* is a pragmatic marker (Figure 6.11).

Figure 6.11 The proportion of occurrences of *like* as a pragmatic marker or a verb within five words on the left of *or something* in the NICT JLE Corpus



Looking at the co-occurrence of *like* as a pragmatic marker and *or something* (*like that*) in context, they function in four ways in the corpus due to the multi-functionality of *like* (Tagliamonte & D'Arcy, 2004, 2009); an approximator, a filler, an exemplifier and a quotative marker (see Figure 6.12 for distribution).

Figure 6.12 Functions of *like* occurring with *or something* (*like that*) across speaking proficiency levels in the NICT JLE Corpus



Firstly, the concordance lines below (Figure 6.13 and Figure 6.14) show *like* serves as an approximator. The co-occurrence indicates that *or something* (*like that*) occurs in the context where the examinees are not certain of what they are saying and approximate the information in quality and quantity, and again *or something* (*like that*) contributes to downplaying the assertiveness due to the examinees' uncertainty about information.

Figure 6.13 Concordance lines for the pattern of *like* and *or something (like that)* at the intermediate level from the NICT JLE Corpus

- 1 So like ur you were like, eh you know, talking **like** your friends *or something*.
- 2 Pretty uh expensive restaurant. Luxurious, **like** a French *or something*.
- 3 Yes yes yes. Very much. Mhm. **Like** five dollars *or something*.
- 4 Erm err ee. Cook looks **like** cooking ee curry *or something*.
- 5 Because er my job is related to English, **like** translation *or something*.

Figure 6.14 Concordance lines for the pattern of *like* and *or something (like that)* at the higher level from the NICT JLE Corpus

- 1 I gave in today was an easy one. It was **like** a page of summary *or something*.
- 2 of English, too. Some of them study **like** three languages *or something*.
- 3 Yeah. I go to movies **like** er twice a month *or something*.
- 4 I guess it's nice nice place to live when you are **like** seventy *or something*.
- 5 I don't like my friend was visiting me **like** um two weeks ago *or something*.

Secondly, *like* also functions as a filler (Carter & McCarthy, 2006:101). The occurrence of *like* as a filler as can be seen in Figure 6.15 indicates that the examinees are hedging the force of assertion to have time to think what to say. It is interpreted that they may be lacking confidence in what they are saying in real time processing. *Or something (like that)* occurring with *like* as a filler can be interpreted to downplay the assertiveness due to lack of confidence in her information.

Figure 6.15 Concordance lines for *like* as a filler occurring with *or something* at the higher level from the NICT JLE Corpus

- 1 like more like my in in my **like** English or America *or something*.
- 2 or go around the places, **like** if they have a museum *or something* out there,

Thirdly, the concordance lines in Figure 6.16 show that *like* occurring with *or something (like that)* functions as an exemplifier, showing tentativeness in choosing some exemplars. In the context, *or something* is likely to serve to mitigate the degree of assertiveness.

Figure 6.16 Concordance lines for *like* as an exemplifier occurring with *or something* at the intermediate level from the NICT JLE Corpus

- 1 interested in primal industry, **like** cow feed cow or <.><./.> milk *or something*.
- 2 usually, I have a light breakfast er **like** a some er breads *or something*.
- 3 So I didn't went for shopping **like** some handbag *or something*.

Finally, *like* occurring with *or something (like that)* in Figure 6.17 functions as a quotative marker of the examinees' thoughts or inner dialogue (Underhill, 1988; Levey, 2003; Tagliamonte & D'Arcy, 2004, 2009). In the context, *or something (like that)*, again, serves to show the examinees' tentativeness that the quotation is not what was exactly said by someone but their thoughts.

Figure 6.17 Concordance lines for *like* as a quotative marker occurring with *or something* at the intermediate level in the NICT JLE Corpus

- 1 I just would like him to say **like** "Marry me" *or something*.
- 2 when I ordered like in English, um they just say, uh **like** "Oui" *or something*

Thirdly, a closer look at the concordance lines reveals that other expressions to signal the examinees' uncertainty (*I don't know, I think*) appear around *or something (like that)* on Table 6.4 (see Figure 6.18 and Figure 6.19 for concordance lines), as has been tentatively assumed of *know* occurring with *or something* as part of hedging expressions in Section 6.1.2. Amongst them, *I don't know*, which appears frequently in Table 6.4, has been found to show an epistemic modality (Diani, 2004) and to signal 'insufficient knowledge about the topic of the discourse' in the context of English as lingua franca (House, 2011:617). It can be interpreted again that co-occurring with these markers, *or something (like that)* marks the examinees' downplaying their assertiveness due to uncertainty about their information, knowledge or linguistic use in line with the findings of Aijmer (2002:245-246) and Cheshire (2007:186).

Figure 6.18 *Or something (like that)* occurring with phrases to show the examinees' uncertainty about the information at the intermediate level from the NICT JLE Corpus

- 1 **Maybe** uhm England or Germany *or something* but I **I don't know in detail**.
- 2 she wishes to be er <.><./.> **I don't know**, but er **maybe** doctor *or something like that*.

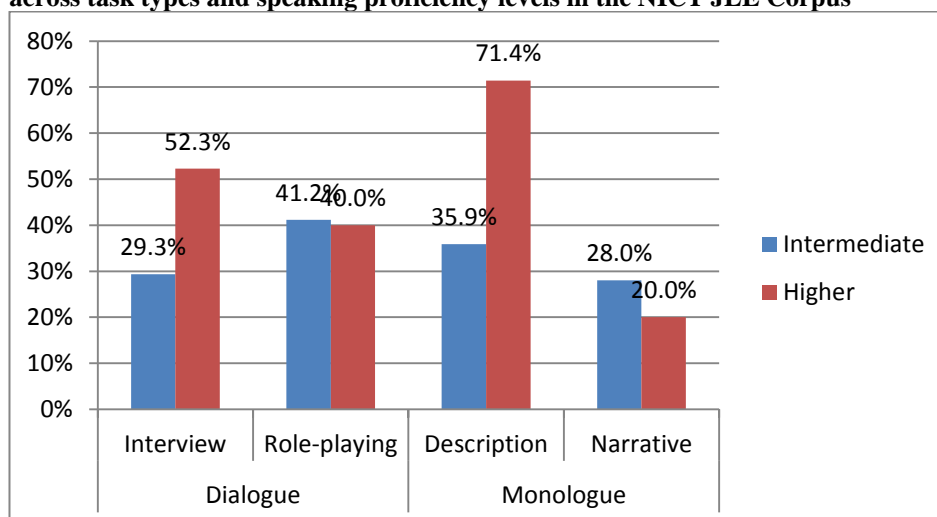
Figure 6.19 *Or something (like that)* occurring with phrases to show the examinees' uncertainty about their language choice at the higher level from the NICT JLE Corpus

- 1 And we thought it was some kind o kind of, urm cre creature **how do you say**, creature *or something*.
- 2 Nothing in special. But I er I drunk ginger hot ginger. **What shall I say?** Hot ginger *or something like that*.

The finding from the co-occurrence of uncertainty markers and *or something (like that)* is that *or something (like that)* functions to downplay the assertiveness at both intermediate and higher levels. Next, let us look at the typical textual feature in co-texts in order to explore the discourse-oriented function.

Or something (like that) to downplay the assertiveness due to uncertainty or lack of confidence contributes to the examinees defending themselves in the speaking test. As can be seen in Figure 6.20, *or something (like that)* as a self-defence strategy can be seen especially at the higher level in the description where the knowledge about what is drawn on the task card is shared between the examinees and examiners and the examinees are expected to describe the picture on the task card precisely.

Figure 6.20 The proportion of *or something (like that)* occurring with uncertainty markers across task types and speaking proficiency levels in the NICT JLE Corpus



In the extract below, an examinee is describing a picture of a ski slope on the task card. It shows that *or something* occurs with other hedging expressions which indicate her uncertainty about her word choice.

Extract 6.6

- 1 Exer: Please describe what you see this picture.
2 Exee: O K. There are a lot of people. Em. One, two, three women are
3 skiing. Em. And three men are skiing. There are, I think it's kids.
4 But four kids are playing, eh, **I don't know how to call this**,
5 em, **I don't know**, snow <laughter>ball war</laughter> *or*
6 *something?* **I don't know how to say it**. [Her her turn
continues.]

[NICT JLE Corpus file 00319]

In the examinee's turn in line 5, *or something* is employed following its exemplar *snow ball war*, occurring with pragmatic markers for uncertainty *I don't know how to call this*, *I don't know* and *I don't know how to say it*. *Or something* in the extract can be interpreted as functioning to show her lack of confidence in her word choice to describe it, indicating that there might be a correct way of describing the game which the children on the task card are playing. As the information on the task card is shared between the examinee and examiner, there is a high risk that the examinee is marked low if her word choice is wrong. Additionally, she might want to avoid making an assertion 'four kids are playing snow ball war' because she is not confident about it and may want to protect her face from being counted as wrong. On the other hand, she could not produce sample language for assessment if she gave up describing the part due to her lack of confidence. In such a context, *or something* is likely to solve the problem; by acknowledging that what she is saying may not be correct, she can produce more sample language for assessment without losing face. It can be interpreted that *or something (like that)* can serve as a self-defence strategy (Trappes-Lomax, 2007), defending the examinee from losing her/his own face in the context where knowledge is highly shared between the examiner and examinee in the speaking test, especially at the higher level. The finding tells that the nature of tasks

in the speaking test and speaking proficiency levels impact on the occurrence of *or something (like that)* and its interpersonal function.

The next two extracts show how *or something (like that)* occurs in the dialogic task of interview, where knowledge is shared less between the examiner and examinee and there is more chance that the examinee's turn should be taken by the examiner, compared to the context of the description task above. In the first extract (Extract 6.7), *or something* occurs in the interview with other hedging expressions which indicate her uncertainty about her language use, but without the examinee's turn being taken by the examiner.

Extract 6.7

- 1 Exer: What is your major?
- 2 Exee: My major is law. Especially, civil procedural law.
- 3 Exer: Oh I see. Uh uu Why did you chose that major?
- 4 Exee: Ah. Hm. <laughter>Actually, I'm</laughter> not interested in civil
- 5 <laughter>procedural law</laughter>,
- 6 Exer: <nvs>laughter</nvs>
- 7 Exee: because it's very <.></.> difficult and eh,
- 8 Exer: Uh-huh.
- 9 Exee: it's sometimes, you know, it's very boring because,
- 10 Exer: Yeah.
- 11 Exee: er there is many, **how do I say?** The many mm not
- 12 sentence but many there is many <.></.>
- 13 Exer: Subjects?
- 14 Exee: subjects or
- 15 Exer: Mh-hmm.
- 14 Exee: to remember *or something*. But I I like I'm interested in the er
- 15 professor is of the my seminar I belong now.
- 16 Exer: Oh I see.
- 17 Exee: Because he is a he's a judge.

[She continues to explain why she is interested in the professor.]

[NICT JLE Corpus file 00638]

It can be seen from line 4 that she is trying to explain why she feels it is boring to study *civil procedural law*: an uncertainty marker *how do I say?*, repetition of *many*, filler (*mm*) and silence (<.></.>), an explanation that it is *not sentence but* something else in lines 11-12 all indicate that she has some difficulty explaining why she feels it is boring. The examiner is trying to help her with a word *subjects* in line 13, but the examinee's *or* in line 14 indicates that *subjects* is not likely to be the term that she was looking for. Instead, she seems to give up finding the technical term but chooses *to remember or something* to explain what makes it boring to study the law, which indicates her lack of confidence in her speech production. Despite the linguistic deficit, she continues to talk about her interest in the professor in lines 14-15 without her turn being taken by the examiner. The extract illustrates that, although knowledge between the examiner and examinee is shared less, compared to the situation in the description task, *or something* serves a pragmatic and discourse-oriented function to show her lack of confidence in language use but lets the examinee go on talking to produce abundant sample language in the limited time slot in the speaking test.

In the second extract (Extract 6.8) below, the examinee is explaining why the town (<Hpn= "others1">XXX03</H>) is famous for gyoza, Chinese dumplings, but he is not certain about the information.

Extract 6.8

- 1 Exer: O K. So you said <JP>gyoza</JP> is famous here.
- 2 Exee: Yeah. Yeah.
- 3 Exer: >But it's Chinese food. Why <H
- 4 pn="others1">XXX03</H>'s <JP>gyoza</JP> is so famous?
- 5 Exee: Ohhh, ahh. Wha, according to the some people's documents,
- 6 Exer: Uh-huh.
- 7 Exee: ah, Chinese, ahh, people, ah, came into <H
- 8 pn="others1">XXX03</H> for, for, mm, I, **I don't know the**
- 9 **detail** but the, for working *or something like that*.
- 10 Exer: Uh-huh.
- 11 Exee: Yeah, so, ahh, Chinese people, ahh, enjoyed, ahh, the Chinese
- 12 food. So, ahh, <JP>gyoza</JP> and <JP>ramen</JP> are famous

- 13 here, I heard.
 14 Exer: I see.
 15 Exee: Yeah.
 [NICT JLE Corpus file 00963]

The uncertainty marker *I don't know the detail* in lines 8-9 indicates that the information *for working* is not assured. *Or something like that* in line 9, following the exemplar *for working*, can be interpreted to convey his uncertainty regarding whether it was for working that Chinese people came to the town. *Or something* contributes to downplaying the degree of assertion, indicating that the examinee is not sure for what he is saying. With regard to the discourse-oriented function, *or something like that* occurs at the turn internal position, which has been found as typical in Section 6.1.3. It can be said that *or something like that* in the extract functions as a turn-holding device, as has been argued. It is interesting that, although the examinee shows his uncertainty or lack of confidence in lines 8-9, his turn is not taken by the examiner, who manages the time and floor in the speaking test. The examiner only backchannels with *Uh-huh* in line 10, but the examinee keeps talking in line 11. This extract illustrates the trend that, by employing *or something (like that)* to acknowledge the examinees' uncertainty or lack of confidence and downplaying the assertiveness, *or something (like that)* functions to manage their own discourse to build up their speech to increase sample spoken texts for assessment, without signalling the end of their turn and their turn being taken by the examiners despite their marker of uncertainty. The contribution of the findings shown in the two extracts above is that they identify both interpersonal and discourse-oriented functions of *or something (like that)* in the interaction with the examiner in the speaking test.

In sum, to answer the subsidiary research question 'what are the main functions of *or something (like that)?*', the typical function of *or something (like that)* is to downplay assertiveness due to the examinees' uncertainty or lack of confidence in information or linguistic choice. It also functions as a self-defence strategy by acknowledging their uncertainty or lack of confidence and continuing their speech. Its function to hold their turn can be identified, too, regardless of their

uncertainty about information so that they can produce their sample language for assessment. The findings illustrate not only interpersonal but discourse-oriented functions and reveal the impact of task types and speaking proficiency levels on the function of *or something (like that)*.

6.3 Summary and contribution

The use of *or something (like that)* differs across speaking proficiency levels and task types. A greater proportion of the higher level JUEs use *or something (like that)* than do those at the intermediate level, while those who use *or something (like that)* at the intermediate level do use it at a high density. It is typical of the description at the higher level, and interview and description at the intermediate level. It mainly functions to downplay assertiveness because of uncertainty about or lack of confidence in understanding what the examinees are saying, to defend themselves from losing face, and to hold their turn to produce sample utterances for assessment. The findings reveal that *or something (like that)* serves not only interpersonal but discourse-oriented functions, and highlight the dynamics of the JUEs' use of general extenders across task types and speaking proficiency levels. The findings may be useful to teachers to expand their understanding of JUEs' use of general extenders, which is discussed in Chapter 9.

In the next section, *and stuff (like that)*, which occurs the second most frequently at the higher level, is investigated in order to see the dynamics of general extenders as speaking proficiency levels rise.

Chapter 7 RESULTS AND FINDINGS OF *AND STUFF (LIKE THAT)*

And stuff (like that) occurs the second most frequently at the higher level in the corpus, following *or something (like that)* (see Section 4.2.3). In this chapter, *and stuff (like that)* in the corpus is looked at to explore a formal and functional variety of general extenders at the higher level. In order to answer the second research question ‘how and why do Japanese users of English (JUEs) use the most frequently-occurring general extenders in the English speaking test in the NICT JLE corpus?’, this chapter starts with exploring frequency of *and stuff (like that)* and its typical linguistic patterns in the quantitative approach. It then discusses its functions in the qualitative approach.

7.1 *And stuff (like that)* - quantitative analysis

This section consists of two parts in order to answer three subsidiary research questions ‘are there any differences across speaking proficiency?’, ‘are there any differences across task types?’ and ‘what are typical textual features with regard to co-occurring words and positions of the GEs?’ In the first part, the frequency of *and stuff (like that)* across speaking proficiency levels is investigated, and an explanation is made as to why the form which is focused in this chapter is narrowed down to *and stuff*. Then the frequency of *and stuff* across task types is explored. In the second part, typical co-occurring words with *and stuff* and typical position in turn-taking are examined in the quantitative approach.

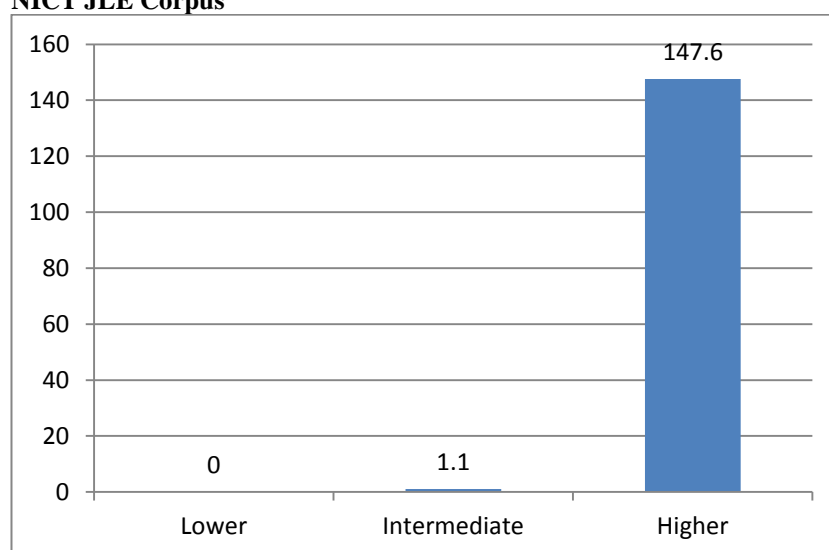
7.1.1 Frequency of *and stuff (like that)*

7.1.1.1 Frequency across speaking proficiency levels

This section conducts an in-depth analysis of the frequency of *and stuff (like that)*. As has been shown in Section 4.2.3, it was found in the corpus that *and stuff (like that)* occurs only at the higher level, but not at the other levels (Figure 7.1). Its

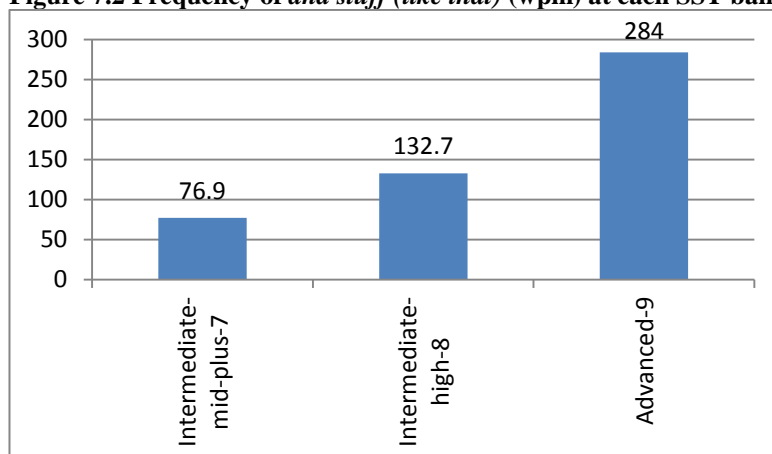
high frequency at the higher level may be related to its prevalence in informal spoken contexts in the previous studies, such as in informal spoken discourse in British English (Carter & McCarthy, 2006:149; Carter et al., 2011:521), in American English (Overstreet & Yule, 1997b:253), in British academic seminar context (Evison et al., 2007) and in the American students' study groups (Biber, 2006:153), for instance (see Chapter 2). However, this early stage of quantitative analysis cannot reveal its mechanism concerning why and how it suddenly surges at the higher level. Next, the data is stratified into three bands of speaking proficiency within the higher level.

Figure 7.1 Frequency of *and stuff (like that)* (wpm) across speaking proficiency levels in the NICT JLE Corpus



The stratification of the data across the examinees' speaking proficiency levels at the higher level shows that the frequency per million words of *and stuff (like that)* increases twofold as the speaking proficiency levels rise (Figure 7.2).

Figure 7.2 Frequency of *and stuff (like that)* (wpm) at each SST band in the NICT JLE Corpus



It is clear that the higher the speaking proficiency level, the higher the general frequency of *and stuff (like that)*. However, as has been argued in the previous chapter on *or something (like that)*, the general result of frequency is not enough to explain what can cause the result and what is happening in the spoken data, as Harrington (2008) suggests. Therefore, the number of examinees who use *and stuff (like that)* and the occurrence of *and stuff (like that)* per million words in each of the examinees' spoken data were counted next.

The section below (Table 7.1) presents the number of examinees that use *and stuff (like that)* and its proportion to 100 examinees. The frequency of usage by each examinee of *and stuff (like that)* out of the total number of her/his spoken texts was worked out and normalised to occurrence per million words.

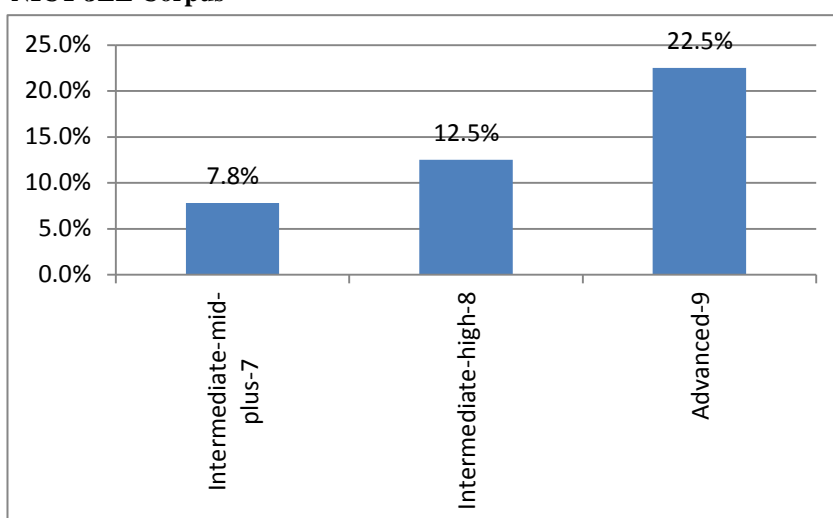
Table 7.1 Descriptive statistics of *and stuff (like that)*

	Higher		
	Intermediate-mid-plus-7	Intermediate-high-8	Advanced-9
The number of examinees	77	56	40
The number of examinees who use <i>and stuff (like that)</i>	6	7	9
% of examinees who use <i>and stuff (like that)</i>	7.8	12.5	22.5
Minimum frequency(wpm)	0	0	0
Maximum frequency (wpm)	1673.6	1712.3	3084.8
Standard deviation	300.8	436.5	727.7
Mean frequency (wpm)	81.2	152.5	295.8

In terms of the proportion of examinees who use *and stuff (like that)*, Table 7.1 above with a visual aid (Figure 7.3) shows that the proportion of examinees who

use *and stuff (like that)* increases as their speaking proficiency levels rise, which is the same as has been seen in the result of *or something (like that)*. It can be partly the reason why its general frequency increases as the speaking proficiency levels of the examinees rise. Considering that *and stuff (like that)* occurs frequently in informal spoken texts (Overstreet & Yule, 1997b; Biber et al., 1999; Carter et al., 2011), it can be interpreted that more examinees at Advanced-9 may be familiar to informal spoken English than at the other speaking proficiency levels. However, De Cock et al. (1998) and Drave (2001) argue that L2 users' lack of English vague language may be derived from their unfamiliarity to spoken English. This finding shows the correlation between JUEs' speaking proficiency levels and their familiarity with this feature of spoken English, and it argues L2 users' use of general extenders is complex and dynamic across the levels of speaking proficiency.

Figure 7.3 The proportion of examinees who use *and stuff (like that)* at each SST band in the NICT JLE Corpus



Speaking tests in general might be counted as formal, as anticipated by some language teachers in Goh's (2009) study, and the examinees might be expected to make explicit and clear as answers to the examiners. However, the atmosphere in the speaking test in this study is highly likely to be informal because, as has been mentioned in Section 4.2.1, the examiners in the speaking test are supposed to make the interaction with the examinees similar to spontaneous conversation (Izumi et al., 2004:24). Because of this, it can be interpreted that the examinees may choose to speak in an informal and relaxing way by employing *and stuff (like that)* to construct

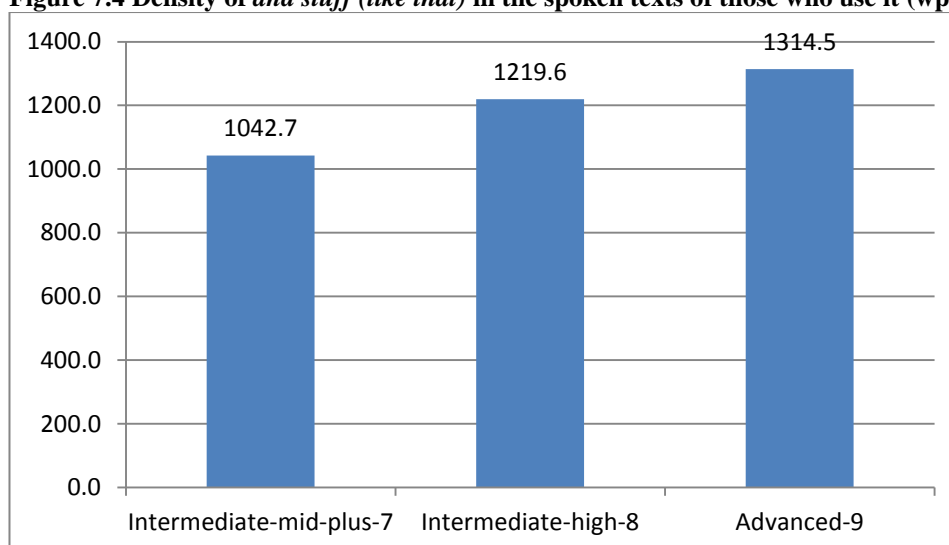
the discourse with the examiner. Next the density of *and stuff (like that)* in each of the examinees' spoken texts of those who use it is investigated because it may affect the result of its general frequency.

In order to examine the frequency of *and stuff (like that)* in each of the examinees' spoken texts of those who use it, their data was retrieved and examined (Table 7.2). In Table 7.2, while the mean frequency is slightly higher at Advanced-9 (see visual aid Figure 7.4), the standard deviation is more than doubled (1037.0 at Advanced-9, while it is 414.9 at Intermediate-mid-plus-7 and 477.9 at Intermediate-high-8). It was found, in each of the spoken texts of the examinees who use it, that two examinees at Advanced-9 employed it much more frequently (more or less 3000wpm) than the other examinees. However, their data may not affect the result because the density of usage of *and stuff (like that)* of both these examinees is two standard deviations away from the mean value of Advanced-9.

Table 7.2 Density of *and stuff (like that)* in the spoken texts of examinees who use it

SST	Intermediate-mid-plus-7	Intermediate-high-8	Advanced-9
% of examinees who use <i>and stuff (like that)</i>	7.8	12.5	22.5
Mean (wpm)	1042.7	1219.6	1314.5
Standard Deviation	414.9	477.9	1037.0
Minimum (wpm)	595.6	539.7	430.5
Maximum (wpm)	1673.6	1712.3	3084.8

Figure 7.4 Density of *and stuff (like that)* in the spoken texts of those who use it (wpm)



Rather, what counts is *and stuff like that* employed by one of the two examinees because she uses *and stuff like that* 6 times out of all the 9 instances of *and stuff like that*. It is thought that *and stuff like that* is her idiolect and it would not reflect the whole picture of the examinees' use of it. In order to avoid generalisation, the author decided to exclude *and stuff like that* from the analysis in this chapter and to narrow down its focus on *and stuff*.

As a result of the proportion of examinees who use *and stuff* and the density of *and stuff (like that)* in each of the examinees' spoken texts of those who use it, it can be identified that the general frequency of *and stuff (like that)* rises as the examinees' speaking proficiency levels rise because the proportion of examinees who use it increases, as has been hypothesised. This result also suggests that just looking at the proportion of *and stuff (like that)* in the total running words at each group of speaking proficiency levels may hide what is actually happening in the data and why such a pattern appears. As highlighted by Harrington (2008) and Murphy (2012), looking at the density of *and stuff (like that)* in the spoken data of each speaker who uses it helped to avoid misleading results in the corpus.

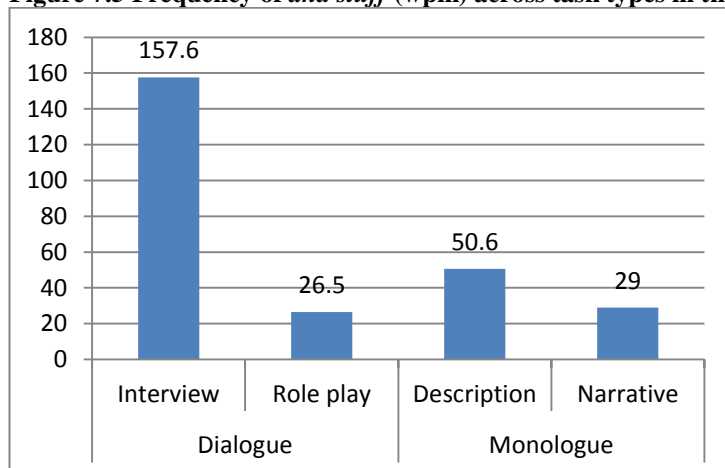
In sum, the answer to the subsidiary research question 'are there any differences in frequency of *and stuff (like that)* across speaking proficiency levels?', is yes; the general frequency of *and stuff (like that)* increases as their speaking proficiency levels rise because of the proportion of people who use it. The finding tells that the examinees' use of *and stuff (like that)* shows their familiarity with informal spoken English rises as their speaking proficiency levels increase.

7.1.1.2 Frequency across task types

This section examines typical task types where *and stuff* is employed in order to answer the second subsidiary research question 'are there any differences of *and stuff* across task types?' Looking at the frequency of *and stuff* across task types (Figure 7.5), it is revealed that *and stuff* occurs mostly in the interview, and only once in raw number in the other tasks. The result is interesting because its quantitative trend is different from that of *or something (like that)* at the higher level in the previous chapter: *and stuff* occurs only in the interview while *or something (like that)* occurs in the description most. It indicates that functions of *and stuff* may

be different from those of *or something (like that)*, and can suggest that the wider functional varieties of general extenders increase as the speaking proficiency levels rise.

Figure 7.5 Frequency of *and stuff* (wpm) across task types in the NICT JLE Corpus



With regard to the genre of interview, it is not unusual that *and stuff (like that)* occurs in informal interviews to collect spoken data (Cheshire, 2007; Tagliamonte & Denis, 2010; Levey, 2012) regardless of the degree of distance and shared knowledge between an interviewee and interviewer. In the speaking test, too, the degree of shared knowledge or understanding in the task of the interview is highly likely to be low because the examinees and examiners had not known each other. Given the context of the interview in the speaking test, it can be interpreted that *and stuff* is concerned with answering the examiner's questions promptly, economically and efficiently within the floor and time mainly managed by the examiner. The finding is different from the previous studies of general extenders used by L2 users in that it reveals that task types impacts on the occurrence and forms of general extenders.

In sum, *and stuff* is typical in the interview with regard to differences in frequency across task types. The finding reveals that contexts affect forms of general extenders used by JUEs. It is not yet clear how *and stuff* is used in the interview. In the next section, an exploration moves on to co-occurring words with *and stuff* in the speaking test in order to investigate more specifically in what context in the

interview *and stuff* functions pragmatically and contributes to the discourse management.

7.1.2 Frequency and co-occurring words with *and stuff*

This section explores co-occurring words with *and stuff* in order to answer part of the third subsidiary question ‘what are typical textual features with regard to co-occurring words of *and stuff*?’ A collocate list was run to search what typical co-occurring words are with *and stuff* in the examinees’ spoken discourse (Table 7.3). Two trends are pointed out below.

Table 7.3 Most frequent words within five words on the left and right of *and stuff* at the higher level (ratio to 100 *and stuff*) in the NICT JLE Corpus

		Total	Total left	Total right
1	LIKE	60.6	33.3	27.3
2	THE	48.5	48.5	0
3	THAT	30.3	0	30.3
4	AND	21.2	21.2	0
5	ALL	12.1	12.1	0
6	YOU	9.1	6.1	3

Firstly, what is strikingly different from that of co-occurring words with *or something* in the previous chapter is the strong collocation of *and stuff* with *all*. They occur together the fifth most frequently on the list. Looking at the collocate list of *or something* at the higher level, *all* appears the 73rd most frequently on the list, with the ratio of 3.8 to 100 *or something*. At the intermediate level, too, *all* appears the 181st on the list of *or something*. The findings mean that *all* is less likely to co-occur by chance with *or something* compared to the collocation of *all* and *and stuff*. The finding is new to studies of general extenders used by L2 users in that the frequently occurring forms of general extenders differ from each other in their typical linguistic patterns.

Looking at the position, *all* tends to occur at the left hand side of *and stuff*. It indicates that *all* can be associated with listing exemplars for *and stuff*. The typical occurrence of *all* and *and stuff* tentatively indicates that *and stuff* is associated with the examinees’ emphasis when listing exemplars while speaking in the interview, considering that *all* can increase the degree of quality or quantity of what they are

saying. What is indicated by the collocation is examined in the concordance lines from the functional viewpoint in the next section. The different trend from *or something* will point towards wider functional variations of general extenders by JUEs as their speaking proficiency levels rise in the context of language education.

Secondly, the collocate list shows that *like* and *that* appear on the right hand side of the list. Both of them are part of a 4-word-unit *and stuff like that*. As has been said in Section 7.1.1, *and stuff like that* is not dealt with in this study. Apart from *like* and *that* on the list, there are few words occurring at the right hand side of *and stuff*. This means that *and stuff* may occur immediately before a full stop (.), considering that collocate words with *and stuff* are counted within the same sentence in this research (see Section 4.2.2.2); however, it cannot tell what is happening next in the interaction between the examinees and examiners. In order to clarify how *and stuff* contributes to discourse construction, its position in turn-taking is investigated next.

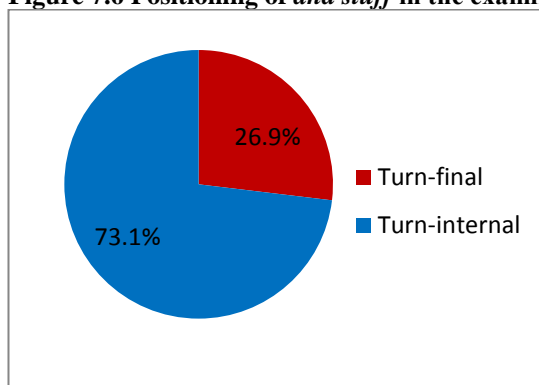
In summary, it can be found that the occurrence of *all* with *and stuff* is a typical textual feature with regard to co-occurring words with *and stuff* in the speaking test. The contribution of this finding is that it shows that the typical co-occurring words are different from each general extender form.

7.1.3 Frequency and positioning of *and stuff*

This section looks at the typical positioning of *and stuff* in the interview in order to explore its contribution to discourse construction because, in the previous section, it was found that few words occur after *and stuff*, which suggested that it might occur at the utterance-final position. A close look revealed that *and stuff* occurs in the turn-internal position (Figure 7.6) (see Section 6.1.3 for the definition of positioning of general extenders in turn-taking). The finding is the same as that of *or something (like that)* in the interview. It suggests that the examinees hold their turn after *and stuff* without having their turn taken back by the examiner. However, considering that the trend of co-occurring words is different from that of *or something (like that)*, the typical textual pattern of *all* and *and stuff* may contribute to constructing the discourse with the examiner in its own way. In the next section, an

exploration of concordance lines is conducted in order to examine interpersonal and discourse-oriented functions of *all* and *and stuff*.

Figure 7.6 Positioning of *and stuff* in the examinees' turn in the NICT JLE Corpus



7.2 *And stuff* - qualitative analysis

This section explores typical functions of *and stuff*, starting with looking at its concordance lines in order to answer the fourth subsidiary question ‘what are the main functions of *and stuff*?’ The co-occurring pattern of *all* and *and stuff* in the interview, which cannot be seen in the results of *or something (like that)*, is a useful starting point to explore typical functions of *and stuff* in the concordance lines and to uncover the wider functional variation of general extenders at the higher level. Due to the multi-functionality of general extenders (Overstreet, 1999; Cheshire, 2007; Tagliamonte & Denis, 2010), it is acknowledged that *and stuff* functions in several ways at a time; however, the functional argument is made referring mainly to co-occurring words as supporting linguistic resources in order to investigate the functions.

The concordance lines (Figure 7.7) present the typical pattern of *all* + exemplar + *and stuff*, with extracts below. The concordance lines and extracts show that *and stuff* is concerned with the examinees’ emphatic expressions when explaining something in answers to the examiners’ questions in the interview in the speaking test.

Figure 7.7 Concordance lines for *all* at the left of *and stuff* from the NICT JLE Corpus

1 I was supposed to go in. And I was like **all** panicked *and stuff*. And so I got
2 any class you want. You could choose **all** the your own schedule *and stuff*.
3 our closed friends. And we bring **all** foods *and stuff* together. And er

Firstly, *all* in line 1 in Figure 7.7 seems to be categorised as an amplifier, which is an adverb to intensify a degree of the meaning of an item by scaling up the head of its quality (Buchstaller & Traugott, 2006; Carter & McCarthy, 2006:908). In the extract below (Extract 7.1), the pattern *all* and *and stuff* occurs in line 8, where the examinee is asked by the examiner whether she has had any troubles in using trains in Japan.

Extract 7.1

1 Exer: Urm did you ever have troubles getting somewhere in Japan?
2 Exee: Troubles?
3 Exer: Yeah.
4 Exee: Urm not really. But when I first like visited my friend's house in
5 Kosuyokohama, I didn't know which train to um change like
6 yeah, and I missed the train I was supposed to go in.
7 Exer: Mm-hm.
8 Exee: And I was like **all** panicked *and stuff*. <nvs>laughter</nvs> And
9 so I got on to this other train and I went to this place I didn't
know. So
10 Exer: Oh.

[NICT JLE Corpus file 01250]

In line 8, *and stuff* occurs with an adverb *all* in the context where she is describing how she felt when she took the wrong train. *All* seems to function as an amplifier to scale up the meaning of being panicked in quality. *And stuff* effectively helps the amplifier *all* by indicating that the degree she felt was more than *panicked* and her panic is beyond description.

Next, *all* in lines 2 and 3 back in Figure 7.7 can be counted as a quantifier to scale up the amount or number in quantity (Carter & McCarthy, 2006:919).

Extracted from line 3, for instance, *and stuff* occurring with a quantifier *all* can be

seen in Extract 7.2 in the context where the examinee is asked to describe an ideal party to her.

Extract 7.2

- 1 Exer: Well em do you enjoy going to parties?
- 2 Exee: Sure, of course. I do love going to parties.
- 3 Exer: Please describe your ideal party.
- 4 Exee: O K. My ideal party is just between our closed friends. And we
- 5 bring **all** foods *and stuff* together. And er we have just
- 6 wonderful conversations. I mean nothing special, nothing
- 7 nothing expensive. But just enjoy conversations, drink good
- 8 wines, eat nice foods, things like that.

[NICT JLE Corpus file 00320]

In lines 4-8, it can be assumed that her ideal party is to enjoy talking over food and drink. It may be sensible in this context to regard the quantifier *all* in line 5 not as every single food she and her friends can bring as its literal meaning but as a pragmatic marker to emphasise the degree of food quantity that might meet her expectation. *And stuff* in line 5 can cause an effect to emphasise that the extent of intensifying the quantity is unfathomable.

This argument correlates to the finding of the co-occurrence of an amplifier *all* and adjunctive general extenders (Levey, 2012). It can be said that *and stuff* is concerned with the examinees' highlighting their speech and serves an emphatic function as has been discussed (Overstreet, 1999; Stenström, 2009:293; Martínez, 2011:2466; Levey, 2012:273), indicating that there is or may be more than the degree of quantity in the exemplar.

In the speaking test, too, the occurrence of *and stuff* with *all* indicates that *and stuff* occurs in a context where the examinees emphasise the degree of some meanings in their speech. *And stuff* occurs in the interview, in which the examinees are likely to be subjective answering the examiners' questions about them or something related to their own life experiences. They may want to tell what they want to say as answers effectively in the spontaneous speech production in the limited time of the speaking test for assessment of their speaking proficiency.

However, *and stuff* as an emphatic marker of ‘beyond description’ can function to make the examinees’ answer emphatic in an informal way to convey their high degree of feeling or emotion efficiently. And the emphatic use of *and stuff* can be led by the informal and relaxing atmosphere made by the examiner, as mentioned previously, and can accommodate the examinees themselves well to the informal atmosphere. It is related to Brown and Levinson’s (1987) positive politeness in that the examinees show their positive self-image and in-groupness in the spoken discourse. The finding reveals the functional variation of general extenders increases as JUEs’ speaking proficiency levels rise. *All* occurring with *and stuff* was an good starting point, and next, the concordance lines reveal that not only *all* but other amplifiers and intensifier to mark a positive degree occurs with *and stuff* in the corpus, which make the argument more convincing.

An in-more-depth exploration of the concordance lines in Figure 7.8 revealed that other amplifiers (*really, very*) and quantifiers to mark a positive degree (*lots of*) appear with *and stuff*. When counting the number of the amplifiers or quantifiers plus *and stuff*, those which occurred with uncertainty markers (e.g., Minor one was *maybe* em neighbors making *too much* noise *and stuff*.) were excluded from the data because it is not clear that the examinees are hedging or emphasising the force of assertion. The total number of the pattern of ‘the amplifiers/quantifiers, including *all*, plus *and stuff*’ amounted to ten out of all 28 *and stuff*, which means 36 per cent of *and stuff* occur with amplifiers and quantifiers to mark a positive degree. The finding makes the argument convincing that *and stuff* used at the higher level functions to make their speech emphatic in the interview, and that the functional variation of general extenders is wider as the examinees’ speaking proficiency levels rise.

Below (Figure 7.8) are the concordance lines showing that the co-occurrence of amplifiers and intensifiers with *and stuff* is likely to contribute to shoring up its emphatic function. The co-occurrence highlights what they are saying and indicates that the extent of intensifying the degree in quality and quantity cannot be described explicitly.

Figure 7.8 Concordance lines for amplifiers and intensifiers for positive degree with *and stuff* from the NICT JLE Corpus

- 1 And it's during the night, the illumination *and stuff* is **really** pretty.
- 2 I like nature **a lot**. I like animals and flowers *and stuff*. But mm and it
- 3 for Switzerland and the meal, the dinners *and stuff*, were **quite** nice
- 4 it's **very** big problem, about, you know, money *and stuff*. So I might have
- 5 **really** dangerous. And harm people erm walking *and stuff*. And er talking
- 6 And um we made **lots of** practical things. cards *and stuff*.

The sample concordance line 1 presents the occurrence of *and stuff* with *really*, which is reconstructed in Extract 7.3 below. The examinee is explaining the park in the area she lives in, in which *and stuff* is employed after one exemplar *the illumination*.

Extract 7.3

- 1 Exer: What kind of place it is is that?
- 2 Exee: There's uh uh sea
- 3 Exer: Mh-hmm.
- 4 Exee: sea and it's like a big park.
- 5 Exer: Mhm.
- 6 Exee: And a lot of families and couples go there. And it's during the
- 7 night, the illumination *and stuff* is **really** pretty.
- 8 Exer; Mhm mhm mhm mhm. Yeah, I've heard of that.

[NICT JLE Corpus file 01260]

It can be seen in lines 6-7 that she emphasises how pretty the park is with an amplifier *really*, providing an exemplar *the illumination* followed by *and stuff*. The employment of *and stuff* can make her utterance emphatic, indicating that it is not only the illumination but also other things that are *really pretty* in the park, and that the park is filled with those pretty items. *And stuff* helps the effect of the amplifier *really* and functions efficiently to emphasise the extent of the prettiness of items in the park in the limited time of the speaking test where the discourse is managed by the examiner. *And stuff* as an emphatic marker is likely to fit the examinee herself well to the relaxing atmosphere created by the examiner and to serve as a positive

politeness strategy in the discourse co-construction with the examiner. The finding contributes to making the argument convincing that *and stuff* occurs in the emphatic environment and provides interpersonal and discourse-oriented functions in the interview, which has not been argued in the previous studies of general extenders used by L2 users.

In sum, the following three main functions of *and stuff*, which is typical of the higher level, are revealed from the typical textual pattern of amplifiers/intensifiers for a positive degree plus *and stuff* in the turn-internal position in the interview;

- *And stuff* functions to accommodate the examinees themselves well to the informal atmosphere in the interview and to co-construct the discourse with the examiner.
- *And stuff* serves as an emphatic marker in the interview.
- By making their speech emphatic efficiently, *and stuff* serves as a turn-holding device so that they can produce their speech as sample language for assessment in the interview where the floor and time is mainly managed by the examiner.

The findings can provide new insights that functions of general extenders used by JUEs are dynamic across the levels of speaking proficiency and task types. How the findings can be applied to the context of language education is considered in Chapter 9.

7.3 Summary and contribution

And stuff is typical of the advanced level in the interview in the corpus. It functions to make the examinees' speech emphatic and convey their information or ideas effectively in the limited time and their turn. It also functions to accommodate the examinees themselves to the informal spoken discourse in the interview with the examiners. The examinees' speaking proficiency levels and task types impact on the frequency and their functions of *and stuff*, as is the same with the findings in the previous chapter. Additionally, functional variation appears as their speaking proficiency levels rise. The findings reveal that although both *and stuff* and *or*

something (like that) occur at the higher level, they differ in the contexts where each of them occurs and their typical functions. Pedagogical implications of the corpus-based findings for language education are discussed in Chapter 9.

In the next section, *and so on*, which occurs most frequently at the lower level, is investigated in order to understand its typical forms and functions employed by the examinees at the lower level.

Chapter 8 RESULTS AND FINDINGS OF *AND SO ON*

And so on is the most frequently and almost the only occurring general extender at the lower level and the second most frequently occurring general extenders at the intermediate level in the corpus (see Section 4.2.3). This chapter explores the use of *and so on*, comparing it with the use of *or something (like that)* and *and stuff* which have been found in the previous chapters, in order to answer the second research question ‘how and why do Japanese users of English (JUEs) use the most frequently-occurring general extenders in the English speaking test in the NICT JLE corpus?’ In this chapter, firstly the frequency of *and so on* and the typical textual features of *and so on* are investigated in the quantitative approach. Secondly the typical functions of *and so on* are presented.

8.1 *And so on* - quantitative analysis

This section consists of two parts which attempt to answer three subsidiary research questions ‘are there any differences across speaking proficiency levels?’, ‘are there any differences across task types?’ and ‘what are typical textual features with regard to co-occurring words and positions of the GEs?’. The first part deals with the frequency of *and so on* across speaking proficiency levels and task types. The second part addresses typical textual features regarding co-occurring words with *and so on* and the positioning of *and so on* in turn-taking.

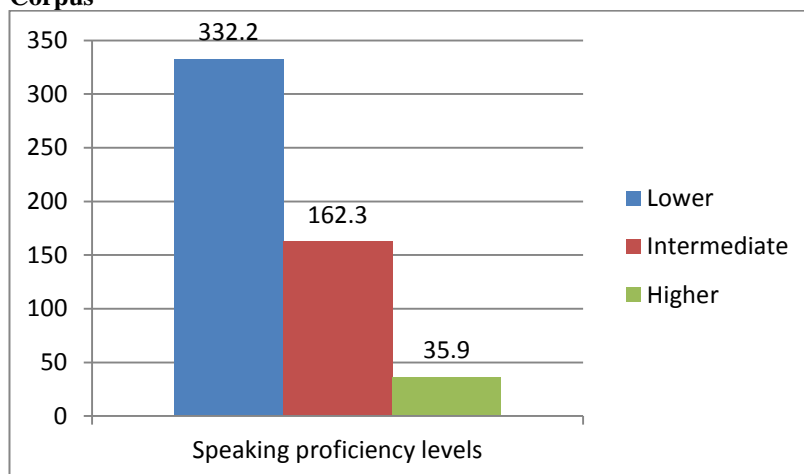
8.1.1 Frequency of *and so on*

8.1.1.1 Frequency across speaking proficiency levels

In the preliminary analysis in Chapter 4, multi-word cluster lists were generated, genuine general extenders were eliminated and it was found that *and so on* occurs most frequently at the lower level and its occurrence decreases as the speaking proficiency levels increase (Figure 8.1). In this chapter, because of the very

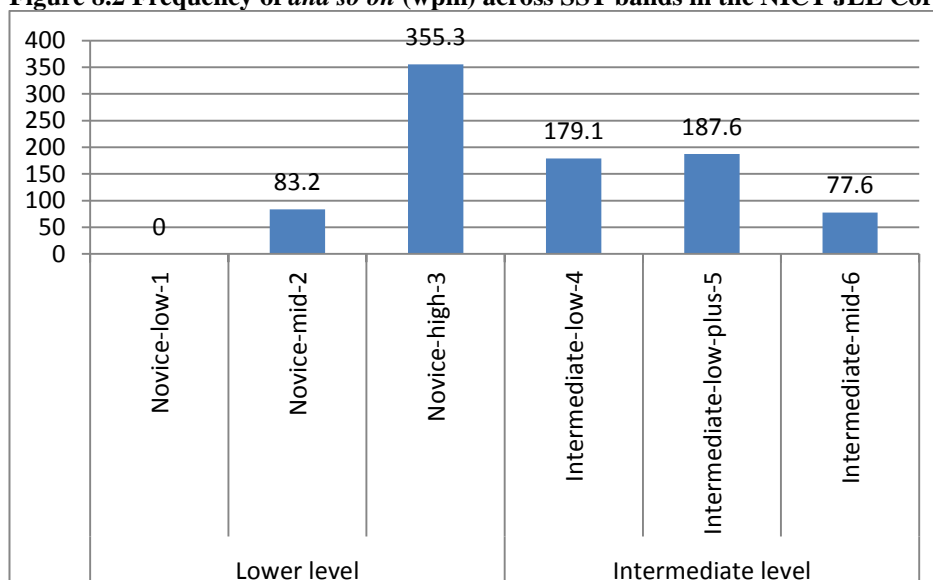
small number of *and so on* at the higher level to generalise the result, the data at the higher level is not addressed. As the general frequency has not revealed why this result occurs (Harrington, 2008; Murphy, 2012), next, an in-depth quantitative analysis is conducted.

Figure 8.1 Frequency of *and so on* (wpm) across speaking proficiency levels in the NICT JLE Corpus



The data was then divided into original bands of speaking proficiency level, which have been allocated in the Standard Speaking Test (from Novice-low-1 to Intermediate-mid-6: see Section 4.2.1) (Figure 8.2).

Figure 8.2 Frequency of *and so on* (wpm) across SST bands in the NICT JLE Corpus



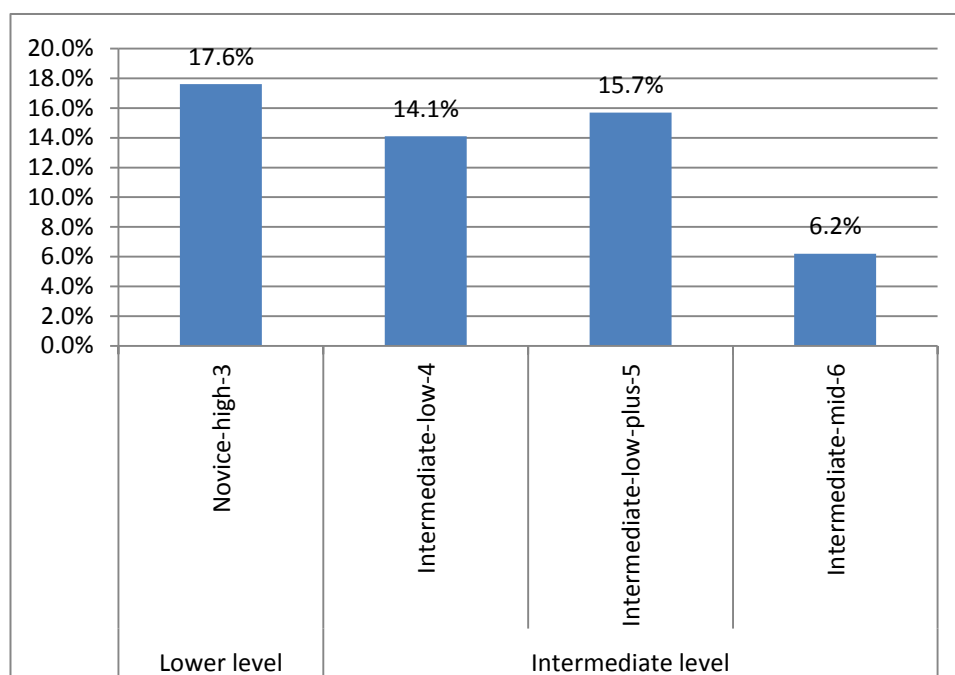
The stratification of the data (Figure 8.2) reveals that firstly *and so on* occurs at Novice-high-3 most and secondly *and so on* occurs at Intermediate-low-4 and Intermediate-low-plus-5 but seldom occurs at Intermediate-mid-6. It can be said that *and so on* is typical of the lower-intermediate level between Novice-high-3 and Intermediate-low-plus-5. The finding is interesting because it shows evidence of the occurrence of general extenders in spoken data by JUEs even at the lower level, which has not been found in the previous study of spoken English by Japanese users of English (Shirato & Stapleton, 2007). It can be interpreted from the result that the examinees may not be accustomed to spoken English, considering that *and so on* tends to occur in written texts (Carter et al., 2011:539). It is consistent with the previous studies by De Cock et al. (1998) and Gilquin (2008), which argue that L2 speakers use vague expressions which are frequently used in written English. However, while Gilquin (2008:130-131) points out the L2 users' deficit in distinguishing genres and registers, the result of *and so on* in this study may indicate that more examinees at Intermediate-mid-6 and above may avoid the style of formal spoken or written English in the speaking test. The finding of this study can suggest that the occurrence of *and so on* is affected by L2 users' speaking proficiency levels. It is not yet clear how representative the use of *and so on* can be at each level, which is looked at next.

Table 8.1 presents the number and proportion of examinees that use *and so on* at each of the SST bands. Each of the examinees' frequency of *and so on* out of the total number of her/his spoken texts was worked out and normalised to occurrence per million words.

Table 8.1 Descriptive statistics of *and so on*

	Lower	Intermediate		
	Novice-high-3	Intermediat e-low-4	Intermediat e-low-plus-5	Intermediat e-mid-6
The number of examinees	222	482	236	130
The number of examinees who use <i>and so on</i>	39	68	37	8
% of examinees who use <i>and so on</i>	17.6	14.1	15.7	6.2
minimum (wpm)	0	0	0	0
maximum (wpm)	7751.9	4555.8	5312.1	3238.9
standard deviation	1435.1	783.1	737.5	455.1
mean (wpm)	591.7	292.3	265.1	98.7

Figure 8.3 The proportion of examinees who use *and so on* at each SST band in the NICT JLE Corpus



The quantitative result (Table 8.1 and Figure 8.3 as a visual aid) shows that the proportion of examinees who use *and so on* is nearly the same in the lower-intermediate level from Novice-high-3 to Intermediate-low-plus-5. This indicates that the high general frequency of *and so on* at Novice-high-3 is not because the proportion of examinees who use it is large at Novice-high-3. The result illustrates that the proportion of examinees who use *and so on* at each speaking proficiency level does not affect the different general frequency of *and so on* across the speaking proficiency levels. Additionally, the quantitative result shows that *and so on* is used by less than twenty per cent of the examinees at Novice-high-3. This means that not all examinees at SST band use *and so on* in spite of the relatively high general frequency. The finding can suggest that the generalised figure of the frequency of *and so on* per million words may cause a wrong conclusion that all the examinees at the level may use it; however, the snapshot is complex in reality. Then, why is the frequency of *and so on* highest at Novice-high-3? It can be presumed statistically that, of those who use *and so on*, the frequency per million words is higher at Novice-high-3 than at Intermediate-low-4 and Intermediate-low-plus-5. That is, amongst the examinees that use it, the examinees at Novice-high-3 may employ *and so on* much more frequently than those at any other speaking proficiency levels. In order to

confirm it, next, the density of *and so on* in each of the examinees' spoken texts of those who use it is looked at.

Table 8.2 Density of *and so on* in the spoken texts of examinees who use it

Proficiency level categorised in this study	Lower	Intermediate		
SST Level	Novice-high-3	Intermediate-low-4	Intermediate-low-plus-5	Intermediate-mid-6
% of examinees that use <i>and so on</i>	17.6	14.1	15.7	6.2
Mean (wpm)	3368.3	2139.5	1690.8	1603.7
Standard Deviation	1542.7	856.4	1035.7	1029.0
Minimum (wpm)	1652.9	961.5	723.1	615.0
Maximum (wpm)	7751.9	4555.8	5312.1	3238.9

As has been presumed statistically, an in-depth statistical analysis shows that the density of *and so on* in each of the examinees' spoken texts of those who use it at Novice-high-3 is the highest amongst the speaking proficiency levels with its mean figure of 3363.8wpm (Table 8.2). The result can illustrate that the high general frequency at Novice-high-3 results not mainly from the larger proportion of examinees who use *and so on* than the others, but from its larger density in their spoken texts. Compared with the frequency result of *or something (like that)* at Advanced-9 in Table 8.3, the density of *and so on* in each of the examinees' spoken texts of those who use it at Novice-high-3 is nearly triple. It may cause the impression that L2 users at the lower level use *and so on* too frequently although the proportion of examinees who use *and so on* is not as large as that of those who use *or something (like that)* at the higher level.

Table 8.3 Comparison of descriptive statistics between *and so on* and *or something (like that)* in the NICT JLE Corpus

General extenders	<i>and so on</i>	<i>or something (like that)</i>
SST level	Novice-high-3	Advanced-9
General frequency	355.3wpm	678.4wpm
No. of examinees who use <i>and so on</i> / <i>or something (like that)</i>	17.6%	52.5%
Density of <i>and so on</i> / <i>or something (like that)</i> in each of the spoken texts of those who use it	3368.3wpm	1212.8wpm

The finding can provide a detailed insight into the previous finding by De Cock et al. (1998) in that the general frequency of *and so on* can be high in L2 users corpora because the density of *and so on* in each of the spoken texts of those who use it is high, not because the proportion of users of *and so on* is high. The finding can show that the density of general extenders in each of the spoken tests impacts on the general frequency of general extenders in L2 corpora.

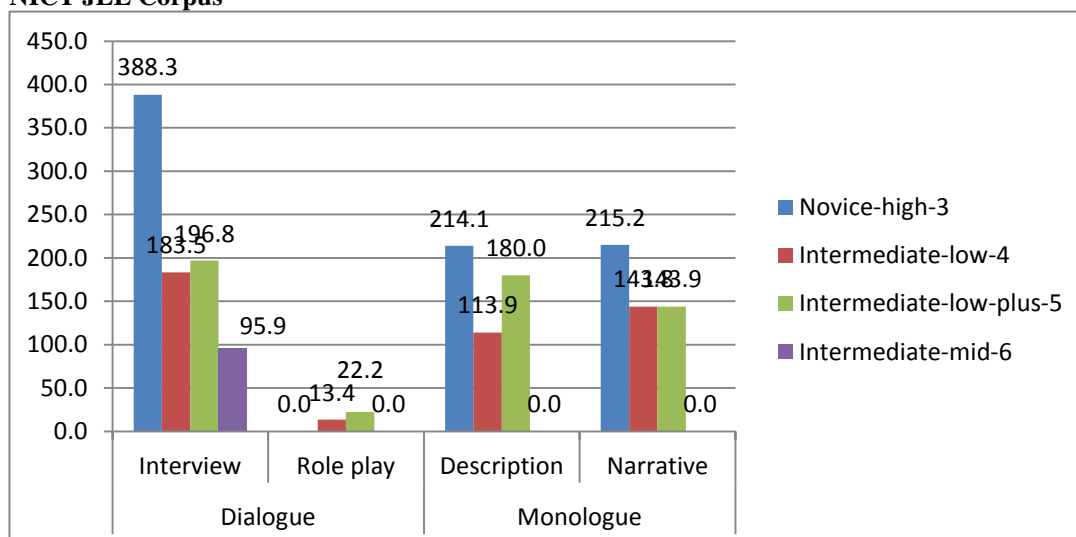
As has been argued in the previous chapters, the task types impact on the frequency of general extenders. In this chapter, it is not yet clear in which context *and so on* occurs frequently. In order to see the relevance between the frequency and contexts, where *and so on* is used and how it serves to help the examinees' speech and discourse construction in the context are investigated in the next section.

To sum up, with regard to differences in frequency across speaking proficiency levels, the quantitative analysis reveals that *and so on* is typical of the lower-intermediate level in that the density of *and so on* in the spoken texts of those who use it is high while it is not prevalent across all the examinees at the speaking proficiency level. The finding can present that *and so on* is typical of the lower-intermediate level, but not to L2 users' language as a whole group.

8.1.1.2 Frequency across task types

With regard to the second subsidiary research question 'are there any differences across task types?', this section examines in which task types *and so on* occurs frequently and discusses in what way the task type affects the occurrence of *and so on* and how it can possibly relate to typical functions of *and so on*. The frequency across task types and the speaking proficiency level is presented in Figure 8.4.

Figure 8.4 Frequency of *and so on* (wpm) across task types and speaking proficiency levels in the NICT JLE Corpus



The quantitative result in Figure 8.4 reveals that *and so on* tends to occur in the interview. It illustrates that the occurrence of *and so on* in the speaking test is largely affected by the task types, as has been found in the previous chapters on *or something (like that)* and *and stuff*. This finding reveals that each form of general extenders spoken by L2 users has its own preference for the context where it tends to occur. It can be suggested that, in line with Harrington's (2008) argument of the importance of looking at each speaker's data, stratifying the data into task types, as well as the examinees' speaking proficiency levels, can reveal how representative the spoken data can be of the individual speakers.

The result shows that *and so on* occurs in the context where the examinees are expected to answer spontaneously the examiners' questions related to themselves. Its occurrence in the interview underpins the argument in the previous section that the examinees at the lower-intermediate level may not be familiar with informal spoken English, considering that *and so on* tends to occur in written English (Carter et al., 2011) or in a formal spoken context (Cucchi, 2007; O'Keeffe et al., 2007; Walsh et al., 2008). Here the examinees' unfamiliarity with informal spoken English is discussed. Due to their unfamiliarity with producing informal spoken English, a possible interpretation of the result may be that *and so on* may function as a hesitation marker, as Gilquin (2008) points out, due to the examinees' lack of ability in speech production; however, it cannot explain why *and so on* typically occurs in

the interview. Next, typical textual features are investigated in order to see the impact of the task types on the occurrence of *and so on*.

In terms of the frequency of *and so on* across task types in the speaking test, *and so on* is typical of the interview at the lower-intermediate level. The finding suggests again that task types impact on the occurrence of general extenders in the use of general extenders spoken by L2 users. In the next section, a more in-depth examination of typical textual features of *and so on* is conducted to understand how it occurs in the speaking test.

8.1.2 Frequency and co-occurring words with *and so on*

Next, this section addresses co-occurring words with *and so on* to explore typical textual features with regard to co-occurring words and positions of *and so on*. An exploration of typical co-occurring words with *and so on* allows the analyst ‘to notice patterns relating to the way in which a lexical item or a sequence is used in context’ (O’Keeffe et al., 2011:14). Table 8.4 shows the comparison of collocates of *and so on* within a sentence level for the lower and intermediate levels (see Section 4.2.2 for collocate lists).

Table 8.4 The top eight most frequent words within five words on the left and right of *and so on* (ratio to 100 *and so on*) in the NICT JLE Corpus

Lower level (ratio to 100 <i>and so on</i>)					Intermediate level (ratio to 100 <i>and so on</i>)				
	Word	Total	Total Left	Total Right		Word	Total	Total Left	Total Right
1	AND	66	66	0	1	AND	64	60	4.1
2	ERR	11.3	11.3	0	2	THE	8.9	8.9	0
3	HEY	5.7	5.7	0	3	WITH	4.8	4.8	0
4	CLOTHES	5.7	5.7	0	4	EXAMPLE	4.1	4.1	0
5	BUY	5.7	5.7	0	5	ERM	4.1	4.1	0
6	UUM	5.7	5.7	0	6	LIKE	3.4	3.4	0
7	THE	5.7	5.7	0	7	COMPUTER	3.4	3.4	0
8	MEAT	5.7	5.7	0	8	URR	3.4	2.7	0.7

It is revealed in Table 8.4 that the filler *err* occurs the second most frequently at the lower level, which has not occurred in the collocate lists for *or something (like that)* and *and stuff* in the previous chapters respectively. From the statistical viewpoint, *err* and *uum* occur at the lower level, 17 times out of 100 *and so on*, while

erm and *urr* occur at the intermediate level, 6.8 times out of 100 *and so on*. It can be said that *and so on* has a frequent and strong collocation with fillers at the lower level compared to the intermediate level. Looking in more depth at all the fillers on the collocation lists with *and so on* (Table 8.5), the result backs up the trend that *and so on* has more frequent and stronger collocation with fillers at the lower level. This trend can be backed up with the study of Osborne (2011:293), in which he found that the occurrence of fillers is wider at the low fluency L2 speakers' group than at the high frequency group. In this study, too, looking back to the typical co-occurring words with *or something (like that)* and *and stuff* in the previous chapters, which tends to occur at the higher level, the strong collocation of fillers with them did not occur. It can also underpin the argument in the previous section that *and so on*, which occurs most at the lower-intermediate level, may be related to the examinees' difficulties of speech production.

Table 8.5 Fillers occurring with *and so on* (ratio to 100 *and so on*) in the NICT JLE Corpus

Lower level			Intermediate level		
Word	Total Left	Total Right	Word	Total Left	Total Right
ERR	11.3	0	ERM	4.1	0
UUM	5.7	0	URR	2.7	0.7
UUNTO	3.8	0	UMM	2.1	0.7
ERM	3.8	0	ERR	2.7	0
UHM	1.9	0	UUM	2.7	0
UHMM	1.9	0	UHM	2.1	0
HUUM	1.9	0	URRR	1.4	0
			URM	0.7	0
			UMMM	0.7	0
			EHHH	0.7	0
			MHM	0.7	0
			MMM	0.7	0
			HUM	0	0.7
Total	30.3	0	Total	21.3	2.1

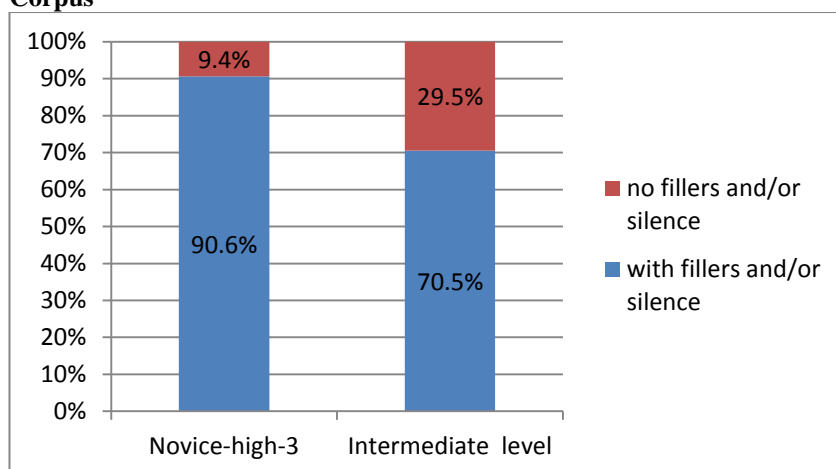
Considering that fillers occur within five words at the left hand side of *and so on*, a possible assumption is that fillers may be inserted when several exemplars are listed in order to show hesitation (Gilquin, 2008) in real time processing (Carter & McCarthy, 2006:903). The concordance lines (Figure 8.5) show clearly that fillers occur when several exemplars are listed.

Figure 8.5 Concordance lines for fillers occurring with *and so on* at Novice-high-3 in the NICT JLE Corpus

- 1 **Erm mmm** that kind of **er** fantasy. **Er** scien science fiction, **er** detective *and so on*.
 - 2 And, yeah, **uunto**¹ <.></.> **uunto**¹ shopping, **err** movies <.></.> *and so on*.
 - 3 **Err.** Yes, **er** scarf **er** and watch *and so on*.
 - 4 because **er eh** sales plan and **uh** actual **mm** result **eh** its follow, **eh** *and so on*.
 - 5 **er** morning and evening **ur** it is **er** rice and **er** <.></.> the cabbage with *and so on*.
- *uunto¹: one of the Japanese fillers

In addition, not only do fillers occur to fill pauses but silence also occurs, which can be regarded as an unfilled pause (Carter & McCarthy, 2006:172-173). In this study, an unfilled pause is called silence and a filled pause is called fillers in order to avoid confusion. The occurrence of fillers and/or silence when possible exemplars for *and so on* were listed were counted manually, and it was found that 81.5 per cent of *and so on* at the lower level and 65.8 per cent at the intermediate level occur with fillers and/or silence (Figure 8.6).

Figure 8.6 The proportion of *and so on* with or without fillers and/or silence in the NICT JLE Corpus



The occurrence of *and so on* and fillers and/or silence when its potential exemplars are listed can be interpreted as the phenomena ‘that are generally seen to reflect speaker’s online planning and encoding difficulties’ (Gilquin & De Cock, 2011:145). In the limited time and floor managed by the examiners in the interview task, the examinees’ *and so on* may signal the giving up of listing exemplars after spending

time struggling. This trend is different from the result of *or something (like that)* in that the examinees did not seem to have problems listing exemplars per se before *or something (like that)* but employed *or something (like that)* for going on to another part of the speech. It can be argued that *and so on* functions in a different way from *or something (like that)* in that it may be related to managing the discourse construction in the interview, which is addressed next.

In order to see in more depth how the fillers and *and so on* occur with exemplars and what the pattern can bring to the examinees' discourse construction, the concordance lines are looked at again to explore the typical pattern of fillers, exemplars and *and so on*, focusing on the number of exemplars. The quantitative analysis in Figure 8.7 reveals that, at Novice-high-3, 51 per cent of *and so on* follow two exemplars, and 23 per cent of *and so on* occur after three or more exemplars. In total, approximately three quarters of *and so on* occur after two or more exemplars.

Figure 8.7 The number of exemplars for *and so on* at Novice-high-3 in the NICT JLE Corpus

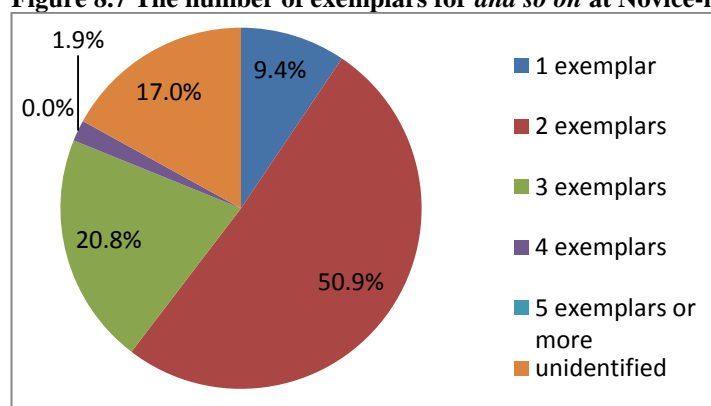
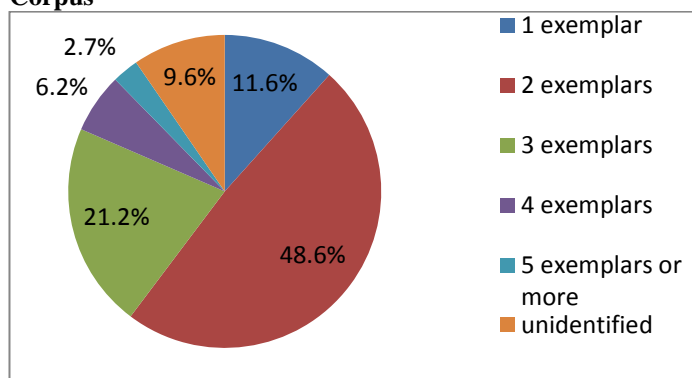


Figure 8.8 shows that, at the intermediate level, too, 49 per cent of *and so on* follow two exemplars and 30 per cent of *and so on* occur after three or more exemplars, which amounted to nearly 80 per cent.

Figure 8.8 The number of exemplars for *and so on* at the intermediate level in the NICT JLE Corpus



Compared to the result of *or something (like that)* at the higher level (Figure 8.9) and at the intermediate level (Figure 8.10) and *and stuff* (Figure 8.11) typically occurring with one exemplar, it is clear that the occurrence with two or more exemplars is typical of *and so on*. It is tentatively interpreted that the typical textual feature of two or more exemplars with fillers/silence before *and so on* may signal the examinees' effort to make their answer long and informative to make up for their deficit of speech production in the speaking test. *And so on*, then, may have a discourse-oriented function to cope with their difficulty in producing their speech as sample texts for assessment. It is not yet clear how *and so on* is used following the typical feature at the discourse level. In order to find out, next, where in the examinees' turn *and so on* occurs is investigated using the quantitative approach.

Figure 8.9 The number of exemplars for *or something (like that)* at the higher level in the NICTJLE Corpus

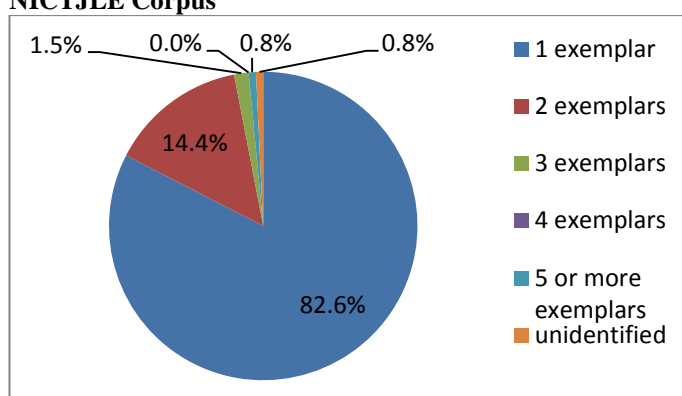


Figure 8.10 The number of exemplars for *or something (like that)* at the intermediate level in the NICT JLE Corpus

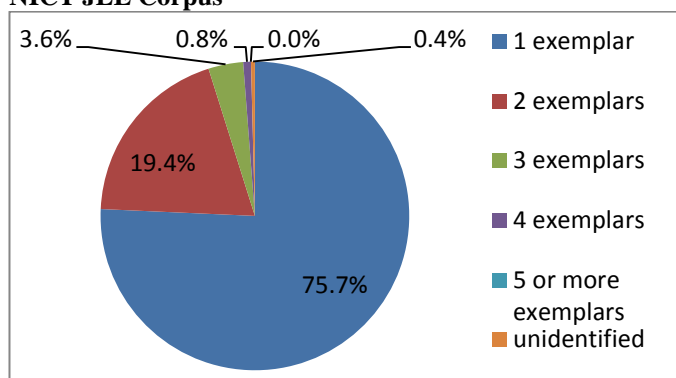
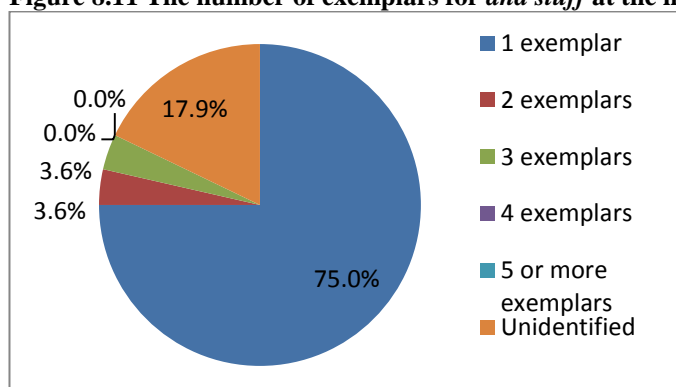


Figure 8.11 The number of exemplars for *and stuff* at the higher level in the NICT JLE Corpus



8.1.3 Frequency and positioning of *and so on*

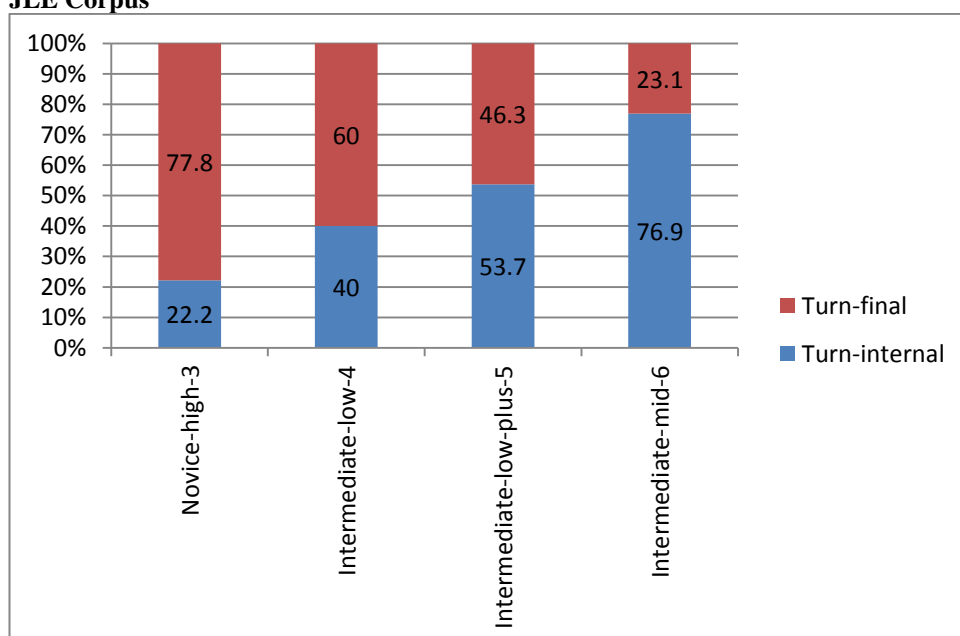
The quantitative analysis addresses how *and so on* serves to help the examinees' discourse construction in interactions with the examiners in the interview. This section provides the quantitative result; the concordance lines of *and so on* will be presented in the next section of qualitative analysis.

The concordance lines were run and the number of *and so on* was counted manually across the positions. The quantitative result (Figure 8.12) shows that the typical position of *and so on* is at the turn-final position at Novice-high-3 and Intermediate-Low-4, where *and so on* occurs frequently because of its high density amongst those who employ it. This finding is different from the typical position of *or something (like that)* and *and stuff* in the corpus. It has been found in the previous chapters that *or something (like that)* and *and stuff* both occur at the turn-internal position to help the examinees to hold their floor during their turn. The quantitative

finding indicates that, considering that *and so on* typically occurs at Novice-High-3 and Intermediate-Low-4, *and so on* is likely to be engaged in the transition-relevance place, a place where turn is transferred to a next speaker (Sacks et al., 1974).

Employing *and so on* may be relevant to their turn-allocation technique, suggested by Sacks et al. (1974), to select a new speaker indirectly in the speaking test; while the previous conversation analytic studies on the interaction in speaking tests have pointed out that the examinees rarely allocate the next turn directly to the examiners (Young, 2002; Luk, 2010). It can be argued that the characteristic of *and so on* is an indirect appeal to the examiners for intersubjective discourse management by using *and so on* as a signal of ‘back to you’.

Figure 8.12 Positioning of *and so on* in the examinees’ turn in the dialogic tasks in the NICT JLE Corpus



This finding can suggest that *and so on* is not only used as a vagueness marker (De Cock et al., 1998) at the pragmatic level but also for a turn allocation device in the interaction with the examiner at the discourse level. What is also new in the finding is that *and so on* at the lower-intermediate level can function in a different way in terms of the discourse construction from the other general extender forms *or something (like that)* and *and stuff* in the corpus. How the typical pattern of fillers, two or more exemplars and *and so on* at the turn-final position is likely to

signal ‘back to you’ is explored in the next section by its functional analysis with the concordance lines provided.

In sum, the typical textual feature of *and so on* is the co-occurrence of fillers, two or more exemplars and *and so on* at the end of the examinees’ turn. It indicates their linguistic disfluency in producing speech and that *and so on* signals their will to give the floor back to the examiner indirectly. The corpus-based finding suggests that the use of *and so on* is revealed from the integrated viewpoints of its co-occurring words, the number of exemplars and its position and its possible function as an appeal to the intersubjective discourse management with the examiners can be provided in the tradition of pragmatics and CA. In the next section, the typical linguistic pattern of fillers, two or more exemplars and *and so on* at the turn-final position is looked at in the concordance lines and co-texts in order to have in-depth qualitative exploration about the JUEs’ use of *and so on* in the English speaking test.

8.2 *And so on* - qualitative analysis

In order to explore the main functions of *and so on*, with regard to the fourth subsidiary research question, an exploration of the concordance lines was conducted in the qualitative approach. Sample concordance lines below (Figure 8.13) were extracted from the spoken data in the task of interview at Novice-high-3, in which fillers and two or more exemplars occur before *and so on*. (Exemplars are in bold in Figure 8.13.)

Figure 8.13 Concordance lines for *and so on* with fillers and two or more exemplars from the NICT JLE Corpus

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 | Err. Er dribble and pass and shoot <i>and so on.</i> |
| 2 | Listen to music and watching movie , and um reading books , <i>and so on.</i> |
| 3 | and uum eating dinner and um mm going to a cinema and live <i>and so on.</i> |
| 4 | Sam Jones, um he play with um Miles Davis and John Coltrane <i>and so on.</i> |
| 5 | customers' urr trust bank and err asset management's company <i>and so on.</i> |

The concordance lines in Figure 8.13 show that, in the real time processing and the restricted time and floor managed by the examiners in the interview, the examinees

seem to make their answer as sufficient and intelligible as possible for assessment in the speaking test by using fillers repetitively to save time and elaborating two or more exemplars. Following that, *and so on* functions to signal the end of listing the items. In the following extract (Extract 8.1), immediately after finishing the task of story-telling about a cinema, the examiner starts the follow-up stage of the speaking test and asks the examinee whether he likes films.

Extract 8.1

- 1 Exer: O K. Thank you very much. <H pn="Exee's name">XXX02</H>.
 - 2 Er do you like movies?
 - 3 Exee: Er yes. Ah
 - 4 Exer: What kind of movies do you like?
 - 5 Exee: Er I like movie. Erm mmm that kind of er **fantasy**. Er **scien science**
 - 6 **fiction**, er **detective** *and so on*.
 - 7 Exer: Ah I see.
 - 8 Exee: Mmm.
 - 9 Exer: Did you see any movies recently?
- [NICT JLE Corpus file 01000]

In lines 5-6, repetitive fillers (*er*, *erm*, *mmm*, *er*) and three exemplars (*fantasy*, *scien science fiction*, *detective*) occur before *and so on* at the turn-final position, as with the samples in the concordance lines above (Figure 8.13). The extract illustrates that *and so on* functions to finish listing items to answer the examiner's question in line 4, after he tries to make his answer sufficient and intelligible. It can be backed up with his *mmm* in line 8 without adding any more answers to the question after the examiner employs only a discourse marker *Ah I see* in line 7. *And so on* serves to finish enumerating items after the examinee makes an effort to produce as much sample language as possible.

An in-more-depth exploration in the concordance lines below (Figure 8.14) reveals that fillers (in bold in Figure 8.14) occur after two or more exemplars and immediately before *and so on*. The fillers in bold immediately before *and so on* can be interpreted that the examinees are saving time to think about any other things to say or to choose the right words or expression. But eventually they end up listing

items with *and so on* to signal ‘That’s all. Back to you.’ to the examiner who has the main responsibility to organise the interview. *And so on* as ‘back to you’ allows the examinees to save their face by avoiding ending with fillers, which might otherwise sound disfluent.

Figure 8.14 Concordance lines for *and so on* immediately after fillers from the NICT JLE Corpus

- 1 <.></.> go shopping or uhm going with my friend <.></.> **uhmm** *and so on*.
- 2 er th three er er afternoon, I I study err politics and economics **an** *and so on*.
- 3 Um um. We go to there, and eat, and chat **um** *and so on*.
- 4 I get I get new technology and only research everything **um** *and so on*.
- 5 Because er eh sales plan and uh actual mm result eh its follow, **eh** *and so on*.

In the extract (Extract 8.2), for instance, the examinee, who is a student, is asked by the examiner what she does in the hiking club which she belongs to.

Extract 8.2

- 1 Exer: O K. <H pn="B's name">XXX02</H> what do you study here?
 - 2 Exee: Mmm. I study literature.
 - 3 Exer: Good. O K. Are you in a circle or a group?
 - 4 Exee: <JP>Eeto*<JP> I <.></.> belong to <JP>eeto</JP> hiking club.
 - 5 Exer: Mmm. Hiking.
 - 6 Exee: Hiking.
 - 7 Exer: What do you do in your club?
 - 8 Exee: **Mmm** we climb mountain, <.></.> and travel <.></.> **mm** *and so on*.
 - 9 Exer: O K. Where where where is the best place you've been?
- Eeto*: (Japanese filler)
- [NICT JLE Corpus file 00222]

In line 8, the two exemplars *climb mountain* and *travel* occurs with a filler (*Mmm*) and 2 or 3-second silence (<.></.>) and another 2 or 3-second silence and a filler (*mm*) occurs immediately before *and so on*. It can be interpreted that the examinee is saving time to think of something more to say but gives up her speech with *and so on*. It functions to signal the transition-relevance place (Sacks et al., 1974) and appeals to

intersubjectivity to co-construct the discourse with the examiner. *And so on* also serves an interpersonal function to save face by avoiding a disfluent and awkward ending with fillers or silence.

The signal of ‘back to you’ after difficulties in producing exemplars can be identified especially when the examinees list clause-level exemplars (Extract 8.3). The examinee is answering the examiner’s question about what his club activity, called ‘the international circle’, is like, and *and so on* occurs in line 13.

Extract 8.3

- 1 Exer: You said you belong to a international circle.
2 Exee: Er yes.
3 Exer: What kind of circle is it?
4 Exee: Uum <.></.> um I I mainly exchange exchange with um many
5 foreigners. Uum. They are they are Korean err or uum American
6 people.
7 Exer: Err.
8 Exee: Err. <.></.> The uum and <.></.> um <.></.> for for example, ee
9 I help I help uum us er I help them to speak Japanese well.
10 Exer: Um mm mm.
11 Exee: Err. And we Ja we learn Ja we teach them Japanese cook.
12 Exer: Um mm mm.
13 Exee: **Uum.** *And so on.*
14 Exer: I see. I understand. It's a kind of a exchange program for
15 students.
16 Exee: Er. Yes.

[NICT JLE Corpus file 00797]

After providing the examiner with a general remark about his *circle* in line 4 as an answer to the examiner’s question *what kind of circle is it?* in line 3, the examinee lists two exemplars; one is in line 9 to help the international students to speak Japanese (*I help them to speak Japanese well*), and the other is in line 11 to teach them how to cook Japanese dishes (*we teach them Japanese cook*). The occurrence of a general remark in lines 4-6 and two exemplars in lines 8-9 and line 11 all

indicate his effort to explain what kinds of activities are done in the club and to make his explanation intelligible to the examiner as an ample answer to the question. While listing the exemplars, the recurrent occurrence of fillers as well as silence and repetitions intimates his unskilful and disfluent language use (Osborne, 2011) and hesitation to produce speech (Gilquin, 2008) in the speaking test. At the discourse level, after each exemplar in lines 9 and 11, the examiner backchannels (*Um mm mm*) in lines 10 and 12 to show listenership and provide the examinee with the floor to continue talking. However, after the examiner's second backchannel (*Um mm mm*) in line 12, the examinee is likely to need time to think about any other things to say, which might cause a filler (*Uum*) in line 13. Then he gives up listing any more exemplars by employing *and so on*. This clearly shows that he gives up producing speech and gives back the turn to the examiner. The sample backs up the argument that *and so on* is a marker to appeal to the examiner's understanding that he allocates the examiner indirectly as a next speaker and to the intersubjectivity to co-construct the discourse, although, as has been pointed out by Young (2002) and Luk (2010), the examinee does not directly allocate the examiner as a next speaker. *And so on* also serves an interpersonal function to save his face from ending his turn in a disfluent and awkward manner with the use of fillers, in addition to the function as a vagueness tag (De Cock et al., 1998).

To sum up, two typical functions of *and so on* used by the Japanese examinees can be seen in the corpus to answer the research question 'what are the main functions of *and so on*?';

- To give their turn back to the examiners indirectly when struggling to find other things to say or the right words or expressions in English.
- To save their own face from ending their turn due to their deficit in speech production

The findings tell that *and so on* at the lower-intermediate level serves to construct interaction with the examiner in the speaking test at the discourse level, not only its pragmatic functions. Implications of the findings for language education are addressed in the next chapter.

8.3 Summary and contribution

And so on is typical of the lower-intermediate level in the interview. It functions to give the examinees' turn back to the examiners after struggling to find other things to say or right words/expression and to save the examinees' face from their disfluency and unskilful language use. As is the same as *or something (like that)* and *and stuff* in the previous chapters, speaking proficiency levels and task types impact on the JUEs' use of *and so on* in the speaking test. In the corpus, the most frequently occurring general extenders vary in terms of frequency and use across speaking proficiency levels and task types. It suggests that they are not used to the same extent or in the same ways of interpersonal and discourse-oriented functions, and this finding contributes to providing a wider insight into the dynamics of L2 users' use of general extenders.

The next chapter details corpus-based findings in Chapters 6, 7 and 8, and relates them to implications for language education.

Chapter 9 DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter provides a detailed exploration of the corpus-based findings in relation to the areas of academic interest. It includes four areas; language testing and communicative competence, L2 pragmatics, teachability of vague language, and methodological implications in relation to the use of learner corpora.

9.1 Language testing and communicative competence

This section outlines how the nature and demands of speaking test tasks impact on the examinees' use of general extenders with regard to the characteristics of the examinees' speech production in the speaking test and the examinees' fluency and discourse and pragmatic competence by using general extenders.

The corpus-based findings revealed the impact of the speaking test tasks on the examinees' use of general extenders. In speaking tests, examinees are expected to produce as abundant sample language as possible for assessment, as has been explained in Section 3.2. They need to convey their intention and information to examiners in the limited time of the speaking test tasks. In the current corpus-based study, the nature and demands of speaking test tasks impacted on the examinees' ways of using general extenders across the levels of speaking proficiency, which are outlined as follows.

At the intermediate and higher levels, *or something (like that)* occurred frequently with other pragmatic markers to show uncertainty. It was hypothesised that, due to the necessity to produce their abundant sample language in the speaking test, *or something (like that)* was employed to downplay assertiveness and to decrease the potential of being regarded as saying something wrong by the examiners. The trend was seen especially in the task of description at the higher level. As the information on the task card was shared between the examiners and examinees, the examinees might have wanted to avoid saying something wrong or uncertain, but, on the other hand, they had to make the speech longer and informative due to the nature of the speaking test tasks, which might have made the examinees speak despite their

lack of confidence in their information or linguistic choice. The task nature might have caused the occurrence of *or something (like that)* as a type of self-defence strategy in the speaking test.

The real time processing of language in the limited time of the speaking test was another possible impact on the occurrence of general extenders. As the time and floor was managed by the examiners, the examinees may have employed general extenders to make their speech efficient and informative by avoiding telling unnecessary information or details and preventing their turn from being taken by the examiners. The limited time may also have caused the occurrence of *and stuff* at the higher level in order to make the examinees' speech efficiently emphatic in the unplanned speech.

The real-time processing and the demands of speaking test tasks may also have affected the frequent occurrence of *and so on* following two or more exemplars at the lower-intermediate speaking proficiency level, especially in the task of interview. Two or more exemplars were identified as evidence of the examinees' necessity to make their speech longer and informative for assessment, and *and so on* was argued to save their face from ending their turn awkwardly in the real-time processing. The findings and discussions above revealed that the nature and demands of the speaking test tasks affected the examinees' use of general extenders from the viewpoints of interpersonal and discourse-oriented functions, and made the complex structure of the use of general extenders in speaking tests across task types and levels of speaking proficiency.

The findings regarding the complexity of the use of general extenders due to the nature and demands of speaking test tasks can be useful when considering how to interpret examinees' use of general extenders from the viewpoints of their discourse and pragmatic competence and fluency. Discourse and pragmatic competence are embraced in communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980; Bachman, 1990), and both are fundamental abilities for L2 users to perform communication in language in a social context. Additionally, fluency is also regarded as crucial to constitute L2 users' communicative competence (McCarthy, 2010). It has been argued that lexical chunks are one of the linguistic items which contribute to replacing excessive pause such as silence and fillers and producing fluent speech

(Hasselgreen, 2002; McCarthy, 2010). The use of general extenders is highly relevant to discourse and pragmatic competence in that they serve as strategies to show politeness, face-work, cooperative principle and to fill communication hitches caused by L2 users' linguistic insufficiency or lack of expressions, as has been reviewed in Chapter 2. Also, the use of general extenders is associated with discourse competence in light of turn-taking and making L2 users' speech fluent in that they are formed and used as chunks.

The current corpus-based study of the speaking test data has shown that the relationship between the Japanese examinees' use of general extenders and their communicative competence is not straightforward, but is complex across speaking proficiency levels and task types from the viewpoints of fluency and communicative competence. Firstly, from the viewpoint of discourse and pragmatic competence, as has been argued above, the examinees' general extenders serve interpersonal and interactional functions in different ways across the task types and the levels of speaking proficiency in the speaking test. *Or something (like that)* shows the examinees' pragmatic competence because it can show their uncertainty about the information or linguistic choice especially in the task of description where they should be careful to be precise to describe what can be seen on the task card provided. Also, *or something (like that)* shows the examinees' discourse competence because it functions to help the examinees to speak longer and more informatively in the speaking test. In light of *and stuff* occurring at the higher level, the typical co-occurrence of amplifiers (*all*) or intensifiers (*really, very*) and *and stuff* is likely to help to show their discourse competence to make their expression emphatic and efficient in the speaking test tasks. The typical occurrence shows the examinees' grammatical competence because it indicates the examinees' positive politeness strategy to make a relaxing atmosphere in the interaction with the examiner. In light of *and so on* at the lower-intermediate level, the use of *and so on* to save the examinees' face from ending their turn in a disfluent and awkward speech production occurring with fillers serves as their pragmatic strategy. It also shows their discourse competence to signal indirectly their will to give back the turn to the examiner. The overarching finding is that general extenders in speaking tests contribute to

constructing examinees' pragmatic and discourse competence at different levels of speaking proficiency.

Secondly, from the viewpoint of fluency and discourse competence, the findings have indicated that general extenders help to create the Japanese examinees' fluency of speech production in different ways across the levels of speaking proficiency. Both *or something (like that)* and *and stuff* occurring within the examinees' turn serve to continue their turn, as has been argued in the previous studies of native English speakers' ways of employing general extenders (Dubois, 1993; Tagliamonte & Denis, 2010). *Or something (like that)* has been found to make their speech production fluent, while acknowledging their uncertainty about knowledge or language choice, and to help them to produce as much sample language as possible for assessment in the speaking test where the time and turn-taking are managed mainly by the examiner. *And stuff* at the higher level also helps to make their speech fluent by making their speech emphatic efficiently in the short slot of the speaking tests. This trend at the intermediate and higher levels can align to the argument by the researchers such as Hasselgreen (2002), Gilquin (2008) and McCarthy (2010) that the use of general extenders functions as a filler to create L2 users' fluency.

The trend, however, does not occur in the use of *and so on*, occurring typically at the lower-intermediate level. Considering the trend that it occurred at the turn-final position, *and so on* may not serve as a filler to produce the next unit of speech and to make their speech fluent, while *or something (like that)* and *and stuff* would do. Instead, *and so on* at the lower-intermediate level helps examinees to make their speech longer in different ways from the general extenders at the intermediate and higher levels. The pattern of two or more exemplars and fillers before *and so on* shows the examinees' effort to make their speech long and informative to make up for their lack of grammatical competence and real-time processing. *And so on* at the turn-final position as a full stop could be their discourse strategy to reduce the degree of disfluency or unskilfulness while listing many items with fillers and making their speech longer and informative in unskilful ways. Again, the use of general extenders is complex, contributing to examinees' fluency and discourse competence in different ways across the levels of speaking proficiency.

It might be anticipated that the examinees' use of general extenders might keep them from producing a variety of lexis or grammatically complex speech in order to get high marks in the speaking test. For instance, from *or something (like that)* occurring with uncertainty markers, such as *I don't know how to say it*, to show clearly their lack of linguistic choice, as has been shown back in Extract 6.6 in Chapter 6, it can be understood that examinees lack grammatical competence. It might also be argued that, backed up with the occurrence with fillers, silence and two or more exemplars, *and so on* at the turn-final position would indicate their disfluency or grammatical competence. However, the current corpus-based research has shown the various pragmatic and discourse-oriented functions of general extenders used by the examinees at different speaking proficiency levels. As has been suggested by researchers such as Channell (1994) and Overstreet (1999), for instance, to use vague language should be regarded as essential in order to serve examinees' pragmatic and discourse-oriented functions in the context of speaking test, too.

It is essential for the language testing organisation to note that the occurrence of general extenders can be affected by the nature and demands of the tasks and it can serve the examinees' pragmatic and discourse competence at different levels of speaking proficiency. It can be suggested that the language testing organisation should be open-minded to interpret various interpersonal and interactional functions of their use of general extenders to manage the speaking test tasks. To interpret various functions of general extenders spoken by examinees will serve to develop their assessment criteria concerning examinees' pragmatic and discourse competence, which is discussed in Section 9.3.

9.2 L2 pragmatics

This section narrows down its focus on pragmatic competence at different levels of speaking proficiency regarding the forms and functions of the general extenders used by the Japanese examinees.

The corpus-based findings have shown that the number of forms of general extenders increases as the Japanese examinees' levels of speaking proficiency rise. While only *and so on* occurred more than 100 per million words at the lower level,

the variation of general extender forms which occurred more than 100 per million words increased at the higher level. The trend reflects Bardovi-Harlig's (2009: 784) argument that one of the elements related to the use of pragmatic conventional expressions is the L2 speakers' level of grammatical development. Admitting that the current study is not longitudinal but cross-sectional, it can contribute to supporting her argument and saying that the variety of general extender forms occurring in speech produced by JUE is wider as their levels of grammatical proficiency rise.

Kasper and Rose point out a developmental shift that L2 speakers at the higher level have wider pragmatic repertoire, while those at the lower level rest on unanalysed formulae and repetition (2002:133). In the current study, too, the statistics have shown that the Japanese examinees at the lower-intermediate level who do use *and so on*, do so at an higher density, compared to those at the higher level who do use *or something (like that)*. It can be interpreted that those at the lower level might be at the developmental stage where they would only rely on *and so on* in the process of L2 development proposed by Kasper and Rose (2002). The research into teacher beliefs in Chapter 5 revealed teachers' impressions that there is frequent use of *and so on* by JUEs whose speaking proficiency is not high. The finding can contribute to explaining why the occurrence of *and so on* may sound too much in JUE' speech, as the teachers in the interview in Chapter 5 pointed out; it may not be because the proportion of JUEs who use general extenders is large, but the density of *and so on* in the spoken texts of those who use it is large at relatively lower levels, which may cause a negative impression of intensive use of *and so on* in addition to their lower grammatical competence and the desire to give complex speech production.

In light of functions of general extenders across the levels of speaking proficiency, it has been revealed that the higher the examinees' speaking proficiency level, the more interpersonal and interactional functions of general extenders are used. It reflects Bardovi-Harlig's (2009) argument that L2 speakers' multifunctionality of conventional expressions increases as their level of proficiency rises. In the current corpus-based study, while *and so on* at the lower-intermediate level functioned as a face-saving strategy to avoid ending their turn in disfluent or unskilful ways, the general extenders at the higher level functioned not only to show

uncertainty about information or linguistic choice but also to show positive politeness. It aligns to the argument that general extenders spoken by L2 users are multifunctional (Terraschke & Holmes, 2007), and provides a new insight that the functions of general extenders spoken by L2 users increase as their speaking proficiency levels rise.

The wider pragmatic repertoire of general extenders and other pragmatic markers is one of the elements to serve wider functions and to make the use of general extenders effective in their speech production. As has been shown in the previous chapters and summarised in the previous section, at the intermediate and higher levels, pragmatic markers occurring with the general extenders helped to convey the speaker's intention effectively in a specific context. On the other hand, the function of *and so on* as a face-saving strategy was identified by the occurrence of fillers and silence around several exemplars and *and so on* with little occurrence of other pragmatic markers. The findings can tell language educators that L2 pragmatic development affects learners' competence in using general extenders in multifunctional ways. These findings will be useful to language educators or test examiners when trying to understand their students' or examinees' intentions in different levels of speaking proficiency, which is suggested in Section 9.4.

The cross-sectional findings have provided a snapshot of the change of general extender forms across speaking proficiency levels from the viewpoints of forms, frequency and functions. The findings can contribute to raising awareness of how the use of general extenders develops across the levels of speaking proficiency and whether teaching general extenders could be effective at different levels of speaking proficiency. In the next section, the teachability of general extenders is argued from the perspective of why it is important to raise language educators' awareness of L2 speakers' use of general extenders.

9.3 Discussion on teachability of vague language

Built on the summary of corpus-based findings and discussion in the previous sections, this section argues firstly whether it is necessary to teach general

extenders and secondly why it is important to raise language educators' awareness to L2 speakers' use of general extenders in the context of language education.

In terms of the necessity of teaching general extenders, the current study argues that it may not be necessary to teach about general extenders or to teach how to produce them, considering the corpus-based findings. Firstly, as has been summarised in Section 9.2, the current study has revealed that, the higher the examinees' level of speaking proficiency, the more various forms of general extenders they use, the higher percentage of the examinees use general extenders, and the more various functions their general extenders serve. It can be hypothesised from the evidence in the corpus, even though the current study is not longitudinal, that L2 speakers may end up using general extenders as their levels of proficiency rise, as has been assumed by half of the teachers in the research into teacher beliefs in Chapter 5. Taguchi (2012) found that L2 speakers' ability to use pragmalinguistic forms developed automatically if the linguistic structure is simple and the speakers have opportunities to be exposed to the forms in the learning context. Built on her discussion, it can be suggested that general extenders may be picked up automatically by L2 speakers because general extenders consist of simple linguistic structure, and therefore, it may not be so necessary to teach these forms explicitly.

Secondly, it would not be effective to teach how to use general extenders in the language teaching and learning context from the perspective of L2 speakers' grammatical competence. The cross-sectional findings provided a snapshot showing that the examinees at the lower-intermediate level use the limited form and function of general extenders; if various forms were taught to the lower-intermediate level students, they might not be able to use them effectively to serve various functions because of lack of grammatical proficiency to express their ideas and other pragmatic markers to support what the function of the general extender would be in the specific context.

Thirdly, from the perspective of learning and using English as a lingua franca, it may not be necessary to teach L2 speakers how to produce general extenders appropriately, while the necessity of teaching general extenders appropriately has been argued in previous studies (De Cock et al., 1998; Mumford, 2009). Mumford (2009), for instance, argues that the accurate use of general extenders builds on the

appropriate choice of general extender forms across the contexts where they occur. On the other hand, in terms of the use of general extenders in English as a lingua franca, where intelligibility is counted as more important than accuracy (Graddol, 2006) as discussed in Chapter 2, a speakers' ability to serve pragmatic or discourse-oriented functions and to convey her/his intention by using general extenders can be regarded as being of central importance. House (2011) explains that non-native speakers of English manage the discourse in interactions in English as a lingua franca by employing their own pragmatic strategies in order to avoid international communication breakdown and re-interpreting the speakers' pragmatic intentions according to the situation. Additionally, in light of general extenders occurring in the interaction between non-native English speakers and native English speakers, Terraschke and Holmes (2007) found that *or so*, a general extender form used only to approximate quantity by native English speakers, was frequently used by the non-native English speakers in their research in a different way from that used by native English speakers but contributed effectively to serving interpersonal and interactional functions. Their study shows that pragmatic or discourse-oriented functions of general extenders can be negotiated in the specific context shared between the speaker and hearer although the form is not appropriate from the perspective of native English speakers' pragmatic norms. It may not be necessary to teach how to use general extenders accurately or to make the L2 user speak like native speakers of any variety of English if intelligibility would be counted as important. The intention of why the general extender was employed would be negotiated between the speaker and hearer in the specific context.

Due to the reasons above, the current study does not argue the necessity of teaching general extenders. Rather, it provides language educators with the findings and discussion so that they can interpret JUEs' intentions in their speech production. Why is it important to raise language educators' awareness of L2 speakers' use of general extenders? Andrews (2007) counts teachers' awareness of L2 learners' language use as crucial in language education, along with knowledge and ability of the language and reflection on the knowledge and ability to draw on for teaching. Teachers' awareness of L2 learners' language use consists of language educators' awareness of the state of their learners' interlanguage, the developmental process of

their interlanguage and the challenges they face in the context of language learning (Andrews, 2007). Andrews (2007) argues that language teachers' awareness of these elements helps to provide their learners with effective scaffolding and impacts positively on their learning. It is important to raise language educators' awareness of L2 speakers' use of general extenders because understanding their use of general extenders can cause three benefits to language educators; firstly language educators can understand what JUEs at different phases of interlanguage want to imply by employing general extenders from the perspectives of pragmatics and discourse construction; secondly, by interpreting their students' interpersonal or interactive functions of general extenders, they can improve how to communicate with their students in the context of language education; and finally, they can aid their students' development of speech production and provide a positive impact on their learning. Because of these reasons, it is essential for language educators to be aware of the multifunctional use of general extenders spoken by JUEs as their communication strategy and to understand not only referential but also interpersonal or interactive functions in their use of general extenders.

How then can corpus-based research inform language educators? Corpus-based research can provide useful information to language educators' awareness-raising because it can inform language educators, both teachers and examiners, by presenting the data and the results of analysis and showing how their students or examinees speak across the levels of speaking proficiency and task types. An experimental attempt to link the corpus-based findings and the teacher beliefs in Chapter 5 is made below in order to consider pedagogic implications, acknowledging that it is not generalizable because the teachers' students in the research and the examinees in the corpus were not identical. Here are four practical suggestions from corpus-based findings which may be helpful to language educators. Firstly, as the teachers in the research into teacher beliefs in Chapter 5 demonstrated, the occurrence of *and so on* at the lower level may cause a negative impression of being used too much. The corpus-based research can inform language educators by showing the result of the quantitative analysis that the lower level JUEs who use *and so on* do so at an high density, while a smaller proportion of those at the lower level use *and so on* than do those who use *or something (like that)* at the higher level. The

result can provide possible explanation that it may not be because of the proportion of JUEs who use *and so on* but because of the high density of *and so on* in the spoken texts of those who use it that might give impression of too frequent use of *and so on* at the lower level. It can suggest that the use of *and so on* occurs as an earlier state of interlanguage, and probably the density will be smaller as their levels of speaking proficiency rise, considering the developmental interlanguage.

Presenting the quantitative findings across the levels of speaking proficiency can be helpful to raise language educators' awareness of their students' interlanguage state and interpret what their students' intention is by using general extenders.

The issue about the frequency of general extenders can also open up the discussion about what is an appropriate frequency of the use of general extenders. The previous studies have not clarified the appropriate density of general extenders per speaker. While the previous corpus-based studies on general extenders have revealed their general frequency occurring in the specific groups or corpora, they have not dealt with the percentage of speakers who use general extenders in the specific groups or the density of general extenders in the spoken texts of those who use them. There may be a possibility that not all the speakers in the corpora use general extenders, and that some of them might use general extenders much more frequently than the others, which may skew the general frequency of the corpus as a group. The general frequency does not indicate that L2 speakers should use general extenders as often as the general frequency shows; it means, for example, it cannot be suggested that a L2 speaker should use *and so on* 300 times per million words or should not use it more than 300 times per million words in academic discussion merely because a previous study, for example, by Evison, McCarthy and O'Keeffe (2007), revealed that the general frequency of *and so on* in the academic discourse is about 300 times per million. As the relationship between the density of general extenders in the spoken texts of those who use them and its appropriateness has not been revealed, it may not be possible yet in pedagogical practice to suggest the specific number per million words of general extenders as a norm in various contexts. Instead, the argument based on corpus-based studies can help language educators to have their awareness raised regarding how to interpret their students' high density of general extenders and how to aid them to overcome difficulties in producing speech.

Secondly, the occurrence of general extenders at the lower level may give language educators an impression that JUEs may escape a difficulty to make more complex speech, as pointed out in the research into teacher beliefs in Chapter 5. The corpus-based research can inform language educators, by presenting the statistical result of the number of exemplars and fillers before *and so on*, which occurred frequently at the lower-intermediate level in the corpus, as well as in the concordance lines, that JUEs might be making an effort to make their speech longer before employing *and so on*. It may be possible to raise language educators' awareness of the state of their students' interlanguage and the challenge they face to make their speech longer and informative.

Thirdly, in terms of teaching and learning general extenders, half of the teachers in the research into teacher beliefs in Chapter 5 pointed out the likely spontaneous development of the use of general extenders through exposure to input. By presenting the cross-sectional quantitative result of the frequency and forms of general extenders as well as the qualitative result of the general extenders' functions in the concordance lines, the corpus-based research can tell that the higher the level of speaking proficiency, the more general extenders occur in more various forms and functions. Presenting the corpus-based results can be useful to help language educators to see the change of general extenders in terms of their frequency, forms and functions across different phases of their students' interlanguage.

Finally, in term of contexts where general extenders occur, the teachers in the research into teacher beliefs in Chapter 5 expressed their understanding of the occurrence of general extenders in spontaneous speech production. The corpus-based research can explain the impact of the spontaneity of speech production by presenting how the examinees use general extenders as a discourse strategy to hold their turn or to make their speech efficiently emphatic and informative in the context where they produce unplanned speech within the restrictions of time and floor. The teachers also had the impression that general extenders would occur as a filler in the spontaneous speech production when JUEs at the higher level are looking for words or phrases. The corpus-based research can present the quantitative result of the frequency of general extenders across task types and their functions, other than fillers, in the concordance lines from different tasks. Presenting the result can raise language

educators' awareness of how the nature and demands of tasks impact on JUEs' use of general extenders in classes or speaking tests.

Language educators need to be aware of how students at the various levels and in the various tasks use general extenders so that they can recognise that their students' use of general extenders is complex and multi-functional across the levels of speaking proficiency and task types. They need to know that because, by interpreting their use of general extenders across different levels of speaking proficiency and task types, they could interact with their students better depending on the specific contexts. For instance, they could aid their students to overcome their difficulties in producing speech when they recognise the students' general extenders to signal their uncertainty or lack of confidence in their language use. They could also understand their students' strategies to show politeness and face management. The benefit of them knowing about students' usage of general extenders is to enhance their support and understanding of students and improve the students' speaking proficiency and communicative competence.

It is important for language examiners and language testing organisations, too, to have their awareness raised because the use of general extenders is complex and is affected by the nature and demands of test tasks. They need to know that because, by taking into account the impact of the nature and demands of speaking tests on the occurrence of general extenders, they could be open-minded and develop their assessment criteria for examinees' speech production from the viewpoint of pragmatic competence. As has been explained, it is not yet clear what is the appropriate density of general extenders in spoken texts of those who use them, examinees' speech production should not be marked down merely because they use general extenders frequently. Instead, language examiners and testing organisations could be tolerant to examinees' use of general extenders as part of their pragmatic or discourse strategies to cope with the demand of tasks or to serve interpersonal or interactional functions.

9.4 Methodological implications in relation to the use of learner corpora

This section explains the contribution of the current study in showing how learner corpus data can be used as a tool for understanding how L2 speakers use features of pragmatics and for informing language teachers, language test examiners and testing organisations, and material writers.

Learner corpus data can be used for informing language teachers by showing the data regarding the different use of pragmatic features across levels of proficiency and task types as evidence to interpret their students' intentions. When they recognise their students' use of general extenders as a signal of the challenges that they are coping with, language teachers could manage efficiently the time in the classroom activities and enhance efficient language teaching and learning. Potential examples would be for teachers to ask for clarification by giving some potential key words or phrases, such as in 'You mean ...?' and 'So you did ...?', to help out their students' speech production, or to move on to the next topic to provide the students with opportunities to speak more. Additionally, when they recognise the pragmatic functions of the students' vague language, teachers could create a relaxing and supportive environment in the teaching and learning context; for example, when students' general extenders function to cope with their face management, teachers could try to lessen their students' anxiety or simply show their understanding of their anxiety with backchannels 'yeah' and 'uh-huh', for example, so that students do not have to worry but can keep talking. When students' general extenders serve to make their speech emphatic, teachers could simply show their understanding of the students' emphasis with backchannels such as 'really?' and 'wow' to create an encouraging and welcoming atmosphere in which students can go on speaking.

By showing the impact of task types on the examinees' pragmatic features, learner corpus data can be a useful tool for informing test examiners and testing organisations that they should not automatically mark the examinees down merely because they use general extenders. Test examiners and testing organisations could recognise the examinees' use of general extenders as a signal to continue or give up their turn, and thus manage a short speaking test slot efficiently and sensitively. They could also develop their criteria for assessing examinees' pragmatic and discourse

competence in their speech production that take into account features such as their use of general extenders.

For informing material writers, learner corpus data can be used when they decide whether to include the pragmatic expressions in textbooks, by showing the findings of the frequency and the pragmatic expressions in L2 users' speech across the levels of speaking proficiency. When material writers are developing textbooks, it might be useful to include general extenders in sample spoken texts so that learners could have more opportunities to encounter and be aware of how they are used. From the perspective of productive skills, however, it may not be effective to include tasks which contain practice on how to use general extenders.

9.5 Summary

The impact of the nature and demands of speaking test tasks on the Japanese examinees' use of general extenders was outlined. Next it was argued from the interlanguage pragmatic perspective that the higher their levels of speaking proficiency, the wider the variation of general extenders in terms of forms and functions. The findings put forward that the occurrence of general extenders in the examinees' speech production was complex and multi-functional due to the nature and demands of speaking test tasks and different levels of speaking proficiency. It was suggested that the corpus-based findings should be used to inform language educators and raise their awareness of L2 speakers' use of general extenders in different tasks and their developmental process of pragmatic and discourse competence. The chapter finally presented pedagogical implications of the corpus-based findings for teaching and learning in the classroom, language speaking tests and materials development.

Chapter 10 CONCLUSION

In this final chapter, firstly the findings and discussions of this study and the implications for the language education are summarised. Following that, the limitations of this study and directions for future research are considered respectively.

10.1 Summary of this study

This study focused on examining the use of general extenders spoken by Japanese users of English (JUEs) in a speaking test across speaking proficiency levels and task types.

In order to relate the corpus-based findings to the context of language education, a small interview was conducted with Japanese teachers of English with the first research question posed, ‘what do Japanese teachers of English think about the use of general extenders spoken by JUEs in the context of language education?’ It was found that while the teachers recognised multi-functionality of general extenders in communication, they were likely to be concerned that JUEs’ frequent use of general extenders, especially *and so on*, might cause an impression of avoiding efforts in making explicit or complex speech in the context of language education. Secondly, in the speaking test, while it was interpreted that they were tolerant to JUEs’ use of general extenders as fillers in spontaneous speech production, a concern was likely to be again on their frequency. The findings overall meant that the teachers’ concern might focus on the decrease of quality in speech production due to JUEs’ frequent use of general extenders according to their own standards. Additionally, half of the teachers had the perception that general extenders would be acquired as L2 users got used to spoken English, rather than by being taught how to use them. It related the corpus-based findings to L2 pragmatic development and language teaching and learning. Although it is not possible to generalise the result due to the small scale of the survey, the research perhaps provided an insight into how JUEs’ use of general extenders might be regarded by teachers in the context of language education. It also ensured the link of applications of the corpus-based findings to the context of language education.

In order to gain an in-depth insight of how and why general extenders were used in JUEs' speech production, which had not been explored previously, JUEs' use of general extenders across speaking proficiency levels and task types was investigated. As a preparation for the current corpus-based exploration of JUEs' use of general extenders, typical general extender forms used by JUEs were identified in the preliminary analysis, and it was found *or something (like that)*, *and stuff* and *and so on* were the top three most frequently occurring general extenders, all of which were taken to be investigated in this study.

As a main part of the study, an exploration of JUEs' use of the frequently occurring general extenders in the corpus above was conducted to answer the second research question 'how and why do JUEs use the most frequently-occurring general extenders in the English speaking test in the NICT JLE corpus?' The analysis of the frequency of general extenders, textual features and functions recognised the dynamics of JUEs' use of general extenders across levels of speaking proficiency and task types. Below are the findings summarised in response to the four subsidiary research questions.

The answer to the first subsidiary research question 'are there any differences across speaking proficiency levels?' is that there were differences; it was found that typical general extender forms differed across speaking proficiency levels. *Or something (like that)* was typical of the intermediate and higher level, and more specifically, the greater proportion of the higher level JUEs used *or something (like that)* than did those at the intermediate level, while those who used *or something (like that)* at the intermediate level did use it at a high density. *And stuff* was typical of the advanced level, next to *or something (like that)*. *And so on* was typical of the lower-intermediate level. The proportion of examinees who used *and so on* at the lower-intermediate level was lower than the proportion of examinees who used *or something (like that)* at the higher level. In contrast, those who used *and so on* at the lower-intermediate level used it three times at higher density than those who used *or something (like that)* at the highest level. This study highlighted the occurrence of general extenders spoken by JUEs in the speaking test and the dynamics of general extender forms and frequency across levels of speaking proficiency. These findings put forward that general extenders used by L2 users would be complex, and the

generalised figure of frequency as a whole group of the L2 users who shared the first language might hide the complexity across levels of speaking proficiency.

In response to the second subsidiary research question ‘are there any differences across task types?’, each of the general extender forms had its own preference of task types where it occurred. *Or something (like that)* was found to be typical of the description at the higher level, and the interview and the description at the intermediate level. Both *and stuff* and *and so on* were typical of the interview. It was found that the nature of task types, not only text types (monologue or dialogue), impacted on the occurrence of general extenders, which had not been put forward in the previous studies of L2 users’ use of general extenders. The findings reiterated the complexity of L2 users’ use of general extenders, suggesting that stratifying the data into task types would provide a wider insight of the characteristics of general extenders in the speaking test.

Answers to the third subsidiary research question ‘what are typical textual features with regard to co-occurring words and positions of the general extenders?’ are as follows: it was found that uncertainty markers (*maybe, probably*) occurred frequently with *or something (like that)*, while an amplifier and quantifier *all* occurred frequently with *and stuff*. The findings tentatively suggested that they would function in different ways while both occurred frequently at the higher level. At the lower-intermediate level, fillers occurred with *and so on*, which were not found to occur frequently with the other general extender forms. In terms of positioning of general extenders in turn-taking, both *or something (like that)* and *and stuff* occurred frequently in the turn-internal position, while *and so on* occurred frequently at the turn-final position. These differences in textual features suggested functional variations of each general extender form across the speaking proficiency levels and task types, and provided richer insights into the functional analysis to answer the fourth subsidiary research question.

To answer the fourth subsidiary research question ‘what are the main functions of the general extenders?’, it was found that each of the general extender forms served interpersonal and discourse-oriented functions in various ways. *Or something (like that)* functioned typically to mitigate the assertiveness of what the examinees said because of uncertainty or lack of confidence in what they were

saying, to defend themselves from losing face due to their possible wrong answer, and to hold their turn to produce sample language for assessment regardless of their uncertainty. The typical function of *and stuff* was to make the examinees' speech emphatic and tell their information or ideas effectively in the interaction where time and floor were mainly managed by the examiners. It also served to fit themselves into an informal and relaxing atmosphere in the interaction with the examiners, showing positive politeness. The finding revealed that, although both *and stuff* and *or something (like that)* occurred at the higher level, they differed in their typical functions. It also identified that functional varieties increased as their speaking proficiency levels rose. *And so on* functioned to give the examinees' turn back to the examiners after struggling to find other things to say or right words/expression and to save the examinees' face from their disfluency and unskilful language use. The function of *and so on* was different from those of *or something (like that)* and *and stuff* in that it signalled the indirect turn allocation to the examiner in the speaking test. The findings all highlighted that the most frequently occurring general extenders had their own ways of fulfilling interpersonal and discourse-oriented functions.

The overarching conclusion of the corpus-based findings was that the formal and functional characteristics of general extenders used by JUEs were dynamic and complex, involving various elements such as the levels of speaking proficiency, the nature of the tasks, text types in the tasks, real time processing of their speech and the power asymmetry where the time and floor were managed by the examiners to a large extent. It brought into question that the generally-held view of the use of general extenders by L2 users as a group would be homogeneous.

The study contributed to the understanding of how general extenders would be used by JUEs to serve interpersonal and discourse-oriented functions in the context of language education, such as in speaking tests and possibly also classrooms, and provided new insights into the dynamics of L2 users' use of general extenders. The corpus-based findings could tell language educators that general extenders spoken by JUEs would function not only as a filler but as an essential communication strategy to signal various interpersonal and discourse-oriented functions in their spontaneous speech production in the context of language education. They could also help language educators to interpret what is happening in

L2 users' developmental phases of interlanguage pragmatics, which would raise awareness of whether it would be necessary to teach general extenders in the classroom.

In terms of the discussion of teachability of vague language, the corpus-based findings could tell that it would not be necessary to teach about general extenders or teach how to use them. Firstly, it is because L2 users may be hypothesised to pick up how general extenders are used automatically, considering the corpus-based finding that, the higher the examinees level of speaking proficiency, the more examinees who use general extenders, the more variations and functions of general extenders. Secondly, teaching L2 users at the lower level how to produce general extenders would not be effective because they might not be able to use them for various functions due to their lack of grammatical proficiency, as has been revealed in the corpus-based findings of *and so on*. Thirdly, teaching how to produce general extenders appropriately would not be useful to improve L2 users' communicative competence in the context of language teaching and learning where improving intelligibility, rather than accuracy, is regarded as necessary.

Instead of drawing on the findings to discuss the teaching of general extenders, the current study suggested that the corpus-based findings could raise language educators' awareness of JUEs' use of general extenders to help better understand their implications in their speech production. It is important to raise language teachers' awareness of L2 speakers' use of general extenders firstly because it helps language educators to interpret how L2 users at different states of interlanguage express their intention or construct their discourse; secondly, by being open-minded to their students' pragmatic and discourse-oriented functions of general extenders, language educators could interpret what their students indicate and communicate better with them; and consequently, language educators could aid their students' speech production and improve their communicative competence. Awareness-raising of L2 speakers' use of general extenders is also important to speaking test examiners and language testing organisations because, by recognising the impact of the nature and demands of speaking tests and their tasks, they could improve their assessment criteria for examinees' use of vague language features such as general extenders as one of their pragmatic and discourse strategies.

The corpus-based findings should have pedagogical implication for language education. They could help language teachers to recognise pragmatic and discourse-oriented functions in their students' use of general extenders. Language teachers could identify some students who need their help for speech production, and manage the time in the classroom activities efficiently by aiding and guiding these students to produce speech. They could also create a relaxing and supportive environment by simply showing their understanding with backchannels when recognising their students' use of general extenders as a positive politeness strategy. They could try to reduce their students' anxiety and create a welcoming atmosphere to encourage students to keep talking when recognising their students' general extenders as a face management strategy. The findings could inform language testing examiners and organisations that examinees' speech production should not be marked low merely because of their use of general extenders. By recognising the examinees' discourse-oriented functions of general extenders, they could better manage the time of speaking test slots. They could also improve how to assess examinees' pragmatic and discourse competence, taking into consideration features such as their use of general extenders. The findings could inform material writers that, while it might be useful to use sample texts including general extenders for learners' exposure to input, it would not be effective to include tasks for producing general extenders in textbooks.

10.2 Limitations

This section acknowledges and discusses limitations of the study in the light of the corpus-based investigation of the JUEs' use of general extenders and the teachers' interview.

10.2.1 Participants invited only from universities

Participation in the research into teacher beliefs was invited only from teachers who had experience of working at universities. As has been argued, this was because, at the time of interviewing, it had been thought that universities would have more classes involving speaking activities than secondary schools, and teachers at universities may be involved in teaching speaking and know how JUEs speak in the

classroom context more than secondary school teachers. The fact that participants were all teaching university students might have affected the results of the interview from the different goals of English education from those of secondary schools; at university level, the curriculum of English education is mainly left open to the institution, curriculum developers and teachers, while at secondary school level, the curriculum, including aspects such as goals, linguistic items, textbooks, for instance, is largely designated by the government.

Allowing for these differences of teaching settings and experiences possibly impacting on their beliefs (Borg, 2003), participants from secondary schools might have had different beliefs. For future study, it would be useful to conduct the interview with secondary school teachers in order to apply the corpus-based findings to the classroom context at secondary school level, in which interactions in English will increase in the English language classroom, as has been mentioned in Chapter 1. This is addressed in detail in Section 10.3.1.

10.2.2 Single genre of the spoken data in the study

This study looked at a sample of JUEs' spoken texts collected in the speaking test across speaking proficiency levels and task types. From a genre perspective, the findings in the corpus-based study cannot be generalised. As has been argued, not only the context of the speaking test but the speaking proficiency levels and task types are likely to impact on the examinees' use of general extenders. It is possible in the context of language education, too, that the use of general extenders may vary across task types, text types (monologue/dialogue), to what extent spoken text are planned, power relationship in the participants in terms of time and floor management, distance between the participants, to name but a few. This study opened up the discussion of how and why JUEs use general extenders, and now further studies would be needed to have in-depth analysis across contexts in language education in order to have saturated and rich understanding on JUEs' communication by using general extenders. This is dealt with in Section 10.3.2.

10.3 Directions for future research

This section suggests directions for future research, extending the potential highlighted during the review of limitations in the previous section.

10.3.1 Research into teacher beliefs on using general extenders and vague language in different contexts

A future research area to be flagged up is a larger scale of research into language teacher beliefs involved in the use of general extenders and vague language in the context of language education. As mentioned in Section 10.2.1, a study of teacher beliefs about using general extenders and vague language in a far-reaching scale of data from different teaching contexts would be needed due to the current increase in speaking activities in the context of language education in Japan, as has been described in Chapter 1. Teachers may have different beliefs across teaching contexts and experiences (Borg, 2003); for instance, teachers teaching English for medical purposes at university level may have different views from teachers dealing with topics in everyday life at secondary school level. It would be essential for researchers to understand teacher beliefs about using general extenders and vague language and their students' use of them in the specific contexts so that researchers and pre- and in-service educators for language teachers could think about what findings from corpus-based studies for their specific context can be beneficial and relevant to them.

10.3.2 Comprehensive study of JUEs' use of general extenders and vague language

In the shift in the policy of language education in Japan towards improving oral communication skills, there are greater opportunities to speak in English in the context of language education (see Chapter 1). In order to have a richer understanding of JUEs' vagueness shown by using general extenders and vague language, comprehensive corpus-based study of JUEs' use of general extenders and vague language would be valuable in various contexts such as in discussions

amongst students or planned academic presentations. The investigation could provide language teachers with in-depth insights into their students' vagueness in different settings of language education and might enable them to make effective teaching and learning of improving JUEs' oral communication skills.

Secondly, from a students' position, the combination of corpus linguistics and the ethnographic approach to JUEs can also provide an analyst with in-depth insight into possible functions of general extenders and vague language in various different contexts and the speaker's motive and intention of employing general extenders and vague language. Ethnography is a study of 'describing and analysing the practices and beliefs of cultures' (Borg, 2003). The combination of the corpus-based study and the ethnographic approach, as has been conducted by Murphy (2010), will be able to describe richer meanings of general extenders and vague language used by JUEs.

Also, how teachers or speaking test examiners cope with their Japanese students' or examinees' vagueness shown by using general extenders and vague language in English is worthwhile investigating. The corpus-based study with analytic views of genre, pragmatics and conversation analysis could describe whether communication is well established between students' use of general extenders and vague language and teachers' or test examiners' interpretation. The investigation would provide wider insights into how to support their students' or examinees' speech production and how to co-construct the discourse with them to achieve specific goals of interaction.

10.3.3 Combining corpus-based study and research into teacher beliefs

Another area that deserves further attention is the relationship between teachers' /examiners' beliefs about general extenders and vague language and a corpus-based study of their students'/examinees' use of general extenders and vague language in the context of language education, such as in classrooms and in speaking tests. The idea is to put together the aspects of teacher beliefs and corpus-based study argued above respectively to make a whole picture of fostering teachers'/examiners' skills in communicating with their students/examiners and to achieve the goal settled in the context of language education. The research could provide a systematic picture

of how the teachers/examiners interpret their students'/examinees' use of general extenders and vague language, whether there are any gaps from their students'/examinees' intentions to use general extenders and vague language, and if any, whether the gaps would affect co-construction of spoken discourse and their language teaching and learning in the context of language education. This could also be a promising future research project serving to develop language educators' interactional and supportive skills and to generate effective language teaching in the context of language education, in line with emerging policy of improving JUEs' oral communication skills in the Japanese context of English language education.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Information and consent form to the interview participants (the first draft)

[English]

Dear [participant's name]

Tomoko Watanabe
PhD Candidate in Education, the University of Edinburgh

Thank you very much for your participation in my interview, which is part of my PhD study. I would be grateful if you understand the research, its purpose and method before you decide to participate. Please read the details below, and sign on the form and fill in the form on page 2 if you agree to participate.

1 Topic of my study

‘The way of using general extenders by Japanese users of English’

2 Purpose of the interview

- to investigate native Japanese speakers’ beliefs about using spoken English grammar (see Appendix 1 on page 3 for spoken English grammatical forms.)
- to investigate native Japanese speakers’ beliefs about using English general extenders (see Appendix 2 on page 4 for general extender forms.)
- to investigate native Japanese speakers’ beliefs about teaching spoken English grammar to Japanese learners of English
- to investigate native Japanese speakers’ beliefs about teaching English general extenders to Japanese learners of English

3 Participants

Native speakers of Japanese who are teaching speaking in English speaking classes or in English classes which include speaking activities at universities in Japan.

4 Time

Approximately 1 hour

5 Method

Interview on Skype, preferably on a video call.

6 Recording the interview

The interview will be recorded for the purpose of analysing the data and transcribe part of the spoken texts.

7 Results of the interview

The result of the interview will be used only for research purposes.

8 Voluntary participation

Participation in the interview is completely voluntary. Please decide whether or not you wish to participate after reading the details of this research above. You can withdraw at any time during the interview.

9 Personal data protection

Your personal data provided below (your name, affiliation, address, email address) is kept confidential.

10 Contact detail

Please feel free to contact me if any question.

Tomoko Watanabe tomochin@pc4.so-net.ne.jp

Signature (If you agree to participate in the interview, you can type your name and date and send this back to me, or you can print this out, sign on it by hand, scan it and send the picture file.)

‘I have read the details of the interview above, and understand them. I agree to participate in the interview.’

Signature:

Date signed:

Questionnaire about personal information (Please fill the following 4 blanks.)

1 Your name:

2 Your mailing address (This will be used to send you a small gift as a thank you for your participation in this research study.)

3 Affiliation where you teach speaking in English speaking classes or English classes which include speaking activities:

4 Living experience in English-speaking countries (e.g., 1 year and 3 months in Britain):

Disclosure of the result

I would like to share the results of the research study after the completion of the thesis.
Would you like to receive them? : Yes / No

Thank you very much for your time.

Best regards,

Tomoko Watanabe

Samples of spoken English grammatical forms

* These are not exhaustive.

Ellipsis : *Didn't know that film was on tonight.*

Headers: *Your sister, is she coming too?*

Tails: *They're incredibly nice, our neighbours.*

Tags:

as request (negative+affirmative): *You couldn't carry this for me, could you?*

as expectation of yes-answer (affirmative+affirmative): *Kate has gone, has she?*

Approximator *about, around, -odd, -ish*:

I'll see you around six.

We're meeting seven-ish or maybe a bit later.

Hedging expressions *apparently, I think, kind of, like, maybe, sort of*:

We had snowdrops but the frost kind of killed them I think.

General noun for vague reference *thing, stuff, thingy*:

I think the whole Euro thing has got completely out of control.

Can you get me that little metal thingy over there on the workbench?

Discourse markers *anyway, cos, fine, good, great, like, now, oh, okay, right, so, well, you know, I mean, if you like*: *You know what we need? Another helper.*

Indirect reports with past continuous reporting verbs:

She was saying, 'Oh, take this fifty pence,' and I was thinking, gosh, did she really pay you for it?

Dramatization of a speech report: *I says, be, go, be like*:

He goes, 'It will cost you 75 quid.' And I'm, you know, 'We can't afford that!'*

*quid = £ (pound)

I was like, 'Oh, thanks God for that!' you know.

Reference

Carter, R. and McCarthy, M. (2006) *Cambridge Grammar of English: A Comprehensive Guide to Spoken and Written English Grammar and Usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

List of GE forms

Basic form: and + general noun (phrase) / indefinite pronoun (phrase)	Basic form: or + general noun (phrase) / indefinite pronoun (phrase)
<p>Examples</p> <p>and stuff (like that) and all (that) and all that/this and all that/this kind/sort/type of stuff/thing and blah blah blah and everything (like that) and such and so forth and so on and stuff/things like that/this and that and the like and the rest and the whole bit/thing and things of that/this kinds/sort and this and that and you name it and what have you and whatever and whatnot et cetera</p>	<p>Examples</p> <p>or anybody (like that) or anyone (like that) or anything (like that) or something (like that) or what or what have you or whatever or so or somebody (like that) or someone (like that) or someplace (like that) or somewhere (like that)</p>

Reference

Overstreet, M. (1999) *Whales, Candlelight, and Stuff Like That: General Extenders in English Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[Japanese]

[] さま

エディンバラ大学教育学博士課程
渡辺知子

このたびは、私の博士課程での研究の一環としてのインタビューへのご協力にご承諾いただきまして大変ありがとうございます。インタビューの実施に先立ち、研究内容や調査目的・方法をご理解いただいた上で、インタビューご参加へのご同意をいただければ幸いです。下記内容をご一読いただき、ご同意いただける場合には2ページ目にご署名と質問へのご回答をいただけますよう、お願い申し上げます。

1 研究のトピック

「日本語母語話者の英語のジェネラルエクステンダー（general extenders）の使用について」

2 インタビューの目的

- ・ 日本語母語話者の口語英語文法についての意識を調査する。（口語英語文法の形については、3ページ「添付資料1」をご覧ください。）
- ・ 日本語母語話者のジェネラルエクステンダーについての意識を調査する。（ジェネラルエクステンダーの形については、4ページ「添付資料2」をご覧ください。）
- ・ 日本語母語話者が日本人英語学習者に口語英語文法を教えることについての意見を調査する。
- ・ 日本語母語話者が日本人英語学習者にジェネラルエクステンダーを教えることについての意見を調査する。

3 インタビューの被験者

日本語母語話者で、日本の大学で英語スピーキングクラス、又は、スピーキング活動を含む英語クラスを担当されている方。

4 インタビュー時間

約1時間。

5 インタビュー方法

「スカイプ」（可能であればビデオ通話）を用いたインタビュー。

6 インタビュー内容の録音について

データ分析や回答の一部書き起こしのために、インタビューを録音させていただきます。

7 インタビューで得られた結果の使用について

この調査によって得られた結果は、本研究のためにのみ用いられます。

8 インタビュー参加の任意性について

インタビューへのご参加は、みなさまの任意によるものです。上記説明を読んでもいただいた上で、ご参加いただけるかどうかをご判断ください。また、ひとたびご参加いただいても、途中で中止することも可能です。

9 個人情報の保護について

この調査によって知り得た個人情報（お名前、ご所属名、ご住所、電子メールアドレス）は保護されます。

10 連絡先

何かご質問などがありましたら、何なりと下記までお問い合わせください。

渡辺知子 tomochin@pc4.so-net.ne.jp

ご署名欄（ご同意いただける場合、ご署名と日付欄にタイプしていただき返送していただくか、又は、この用紙を印刷したものに直筆でご記入いただき、画像をお送りください。）

「上記インタビューに関する説明を読み、内容を理解しました。インタビューに参加することに同意します。」

ご署名：

日付：

個人情報に関する質問（下記4項目について、ご回答ください。）

- 1 お名前：
- 2 ご住所（後日、お礼として粗品を送らせていただきたいと思いますとおります。差し支えなければご住所を教えていただけたら幸いです。）：
- 3 英語スピーキングクラス、又は、スピーキング活動を含む英語クラスをご担当されている学校名：
- 4 英語圏での滞在歴（例 イギリスに1年3ヶ月）：

調査結果の公開について

調査結果をご所望の方には後日論文が完成次第お送りいたします。ご所望になりますか。： はい / いいえ

ご協力いただきまして、大変ありがとうございました。渡辺知子

Samples of spoken English grammatical forms

* These are not exhaustive.

Ellipsis : *Didn't know* that film was on tonight.

Headers: *Your sister*, is *she* coming too?

Tails: *They're* incredibly nice, *our neighbours*.

Tags:

as request (negative+affirmative): *You couldn't* carry this for me, *could you?*

as expectation of yes-answer (affirmative+affirmative): *Kate has* gone, *has she?*

Approximator *about, around, -odd, -ish*:

I'll see you around six.

We're meeting seven-ish or maybe a bit later.

Hedging expressions *apparently, I think, kind of, like, maybe, sort of*:

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General noun for vague reference *thing, stuff, thingy*:

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Can you get me that little metal thingy over there on the workbench?

Discourse markers *anyway, cos, fine, good, great, like, now, oh, okay, right, so, well, you know, I mean, if you like*: *You know* what we need? Another helper.

Indirect reports with past continuous reporting verbs:

She was saying, 'Oh, take this fifty pence,' and *I was thinking*, gosh, did she really pay you for it?

Dramatization of a speech report: *I says, be, go, be like*:

He goes, 'It will cost you 75 quid*.' And *I'm*, you know, 'We can't afford that!'

*quid = £ (pound)

I was like, 'Oh, thanks God for that!' you know.

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Reference

Overstreet, M. (1999) *Whales, Candlelight, and Stuff Like That: General Extenders in English Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Appendix 2

Information and consent form to the interview participants

[English]

Dear [participant's name]

Tomoko Watanabe
PhD Candidate in Education, the University of Edinburgh

Thank you very much for your participation in my interview, which is part of my PhD study. I would be grateful if you understand the research, its purpose and method before you decide to participate. Please read the details below, and sign on the form and fill in the form on page 2 if you agree to participate.

1 Topic of my study

‘The way of using general extenders by Japanese users of English’ (see Appendix 1 on page 3 for general extender forms.)

2 Purpose of the interview

- to investigate Japanese English teachers’ beliefs about using English general extenders
- to investigate Japanese English teachers’ beliefs about teaching English general extenders to Japanese learners of English

3 Participants

Native speakers of Japanese who are teaching speaking in English speaking classes or in English classes which include speaking activities at universities in Japan.

4 Time

Approximately 1 hour

5 Method

Interview on Skype, preferably on a video call, or telephone.

6 Recording the interview

The interview will be recorded for the purpose of analysing the data and transcribing part of the spoken texts.

7 Results of the interview

The result of the interview will be used only for research purposes.

8 Voluntary participation

Participation in the interview is completely voluntary. Please decide whether or not you wish to participate after reading the details of this research above. You can withdraw at any time during the interview.

9 Personal data protection

Your personal data provided below (your name, affiliation, address and email address) is kept confidential.

10 Contact detail

Please feel free to contact me if any questions. Tomoko Watanabe tomochin@pc4.so-net.ne.jp

Signature (If you agree to participate in the interview, please type your name and date and send this back to me, or print this out, sign on it by hand, scan it and send the picture file.)

‘I have read the details of the interview above, and understand them. I agree to participate in the interview.’

Signature:

Date signed:

Personal information (Please fill in the form below.)

1 Name:

2 Sex: Female / Male

3 Age: 20's / 30's / 40's / 50's / 60's / 70's

4 Affiliation where you teach speaking in English speaking classes or English classes which include speaking activities:

5 Years of experience for teaching speaking English in English speaking classes or English classes which include speaking activities:

6 Living experience in English-speaking countries (e.g., 1 year and 3 months in Britain):

7 Mailing address (This will be used to send you a small gift as a thank you for your participation in this research study.)

Disclosure of the result

I would like to share the results of the research study after the completion of the thesis.
Would you like to receive them? : Yes / No

Thank you very much for your time and help.

Best regards,

Tomoko Watanabe

List of GE forms

Basic form: <i>and + general noun phrase</i>	Basic form: <i>or + general noun phrase</i>
<p>Examples</p> <p>and stuff (like that) and all (that) and all that/this and all that/this kind/sort/type of stuff/thing and blah blah blah and everything (like that) and such and so forth and so on and stuff/things like that/this and that and the like and the rest and the whole bit/thing and things of that/this kinds/sort and this and that and you name it and what have you and whatever and whatnot et cetera</p>	<p>Examples</p> <p>or anybody (like that) or anyone (like that) or anything (like that) or something (like that) or what or what have you or whatever or so or somebody (like that) or someone (like that) or someplace (like that) or somewhere (like that)</p>

Reference

Overstreet, M. (1999) *Whales, Candlelight, and Stuff Like That: General Extenders in English Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Samples of spoken English grammatical forms

* These are not exhaustive.

Ellipsis : *Didn't know* that film was on tonight.

Headers: *Your sister*, is *she* coming too?

Tails: *They're* incredibly nice, *our neighbours*.

Tags:

as request (negative+affirmative): *You couldn't* carry this for me, *could you?*

as expectation of yes-answer (affirmative+affirmative): *Kate has* gone, *has she?*

Approximator *about, around, -odd, -ish*:

I'll see you around six.

We're meeting seven-ish or maybe a bit later.

Hedging expressions *apparently, I think, kind of, like, maybe, sort of*:

We had snowdrops but the frost kind of killed them *I think*.

General noun for vague reference *thing, stuff, thingy*:

I think the whole Euro thing has got completely out of control.

Can you get me that little metal thingy over there on the workbench?

Discourse markers *anyway, cos, fine, good, great, like, now, oh, okay, right, so, well, you know, I mean, if you like*: *You know* what we need? Another helper.

Indirect reports with past continuous reporting verbs:

She was saying, 'Oh, take this fifty pence,' and *I was thinking*, gosh, did she really pay you for it?

Dramatization of a speech report: *I says, be, go, be like*:

He goes, 'It will cost you 75 quid*.' And *I'm*, you know, 'We can't afford that!'

*quid = £ (pound)

I was like, 'Oh, thanks God for that!' you know.

Reference

Carter, R. and McCarthy, M. (2006) *Cambridge Grammar of English: A Comprehensive Guide to Spoken and Written English Grammar and Usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[Japanese]

[] さま

エディンバラ大学教育学博士課程
渡辺知子

このたびは、私の博士課程での研究の一環としてのインタビューへのご協力にご承諾いただきまして大変ありがとうございます。インタビューの実施に先立ち、研究内容や調査目的・方法をご理解いただいた上で、インタビューご参加へのご同意をいただければ幸いです。下記内容をご一読いただき、ご同意いただける場合には2ページ目にご署名と質問へのご回答をいただけますよう、お願い申し上げます。

1 研究のトピック

「日本語母語話者の英語のジェネラルエクステンダー（general extenders）の使用について」（ジェネラルエクステンダーの形については、3ページ「添付資料1」をご覧ください。）

2 インタビューの目的

- ・ 日本人英語教師のジェネラルエクステンダーの使用についての意見を調査する。
- ・ 日本人英語教師が日本人英語学習者にジェネラルエクステンダーを教えることへの意見を調査する。

3 インタビューの被験者

日本語母語話者で、日本の大学で英語スピーキングクラス、又は、スピーキング活動を含む英語クラスを担当されている方。

4 インタビュー時間

約1時間。

5 インタビュー方法

「スカイプ」（可能であればビデオ通話）または、電話を用いたインタビュー。

6 インタビュー内容の録音について

データ分析や回答の一部書き起こしのために、インタビューを録音させていただきます。

7 インタビューで得られた結果の使用について

この調査によって得られた結果は、本研究のためにのみ用いられます。

8 インタビュー参加の任意性について

インタビューへのご参加は、みなさまの任意によります。上記説明を読んでいただいた上で、ご参加いただけるかどうかをご判断ください。また、ひとたびご参加いただいても、途中で中止することも可能です。

9 個人情報の保護について

この調査によって知り得た個人情報（お名前、ご所属名、ご住所、電子メールアドレス）は保護されます。

10 連絡先

何かご質問などがありましたら、何なりと下記までお問い合わせください。

渡辺知子 tomochin@pc4.so-net.ne.jp

ご署名欄（ご同意いただける場合、ご署名と日付欄にタイプしていただき返送していただくか、又は、この用紙を印刷したものに直筆でご記入いただき、画像をお送りください。）

「上記インタビューに関する説明を読み、内容を理解しました。インタビューに参加することに同意します。」

ご署名：

日付：

個人情報に関する質問（下記4項目について、ご回答ください。）

- 1 お名前：
- 2 ご性別： 男性 / 女性
- 3 ご年齢： 20代 / 30代 / 40代 / 50代 / 60代 / 70代
- 4 ご住所（後日、お礼として粗品を送らせていただきたいと思います。差し支えなければご住所を教えてください。）：
- 5 英語スピーキングクラス、又は、スピーキング活動を含む英語クラスをご担当されている学校名：
- 6 英語圏での滞在歴（例 イギリスに1年3ヶ月）：

調査結果の公開について

調査結果をご所望の方には後日論文完成後にお送りいたします。ご所望になりますか。： はい / いいえ

ご協力いただきまして、大変ありがとうございました。渡辺知子

List of GE forms

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She was saying, 'Oh, take this fifty pence,' and I was thinking, gosh, did she really pay you for it?

Dramatization of a speech report: *I says, be, go, be like*:

He goes, 'It will cost you 75 quid.' And I'm, you know, 'We can't afford that!'*

*quid = £ (pound)

I was like, 'Oh, thanks God for that!' you know.

Reference

Carter, R. and McCarthy, M. (2006) *Cambridge Grammar of English: A Comprehensive Guide to Spoken and Written English Grammar and Usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Appendix 3

Interview questions

Topic 1 Japanese language teachers' views of GEs in general

Questions

- Do you use GEs when you speak in English?
 - If yes
 - What forms? Why do you use them? When do you use them? In what context?
 - If not or seldom
 - Are there any reasons why you don't use them?
- Are you aware of other people using GEs?
- Have you heard someone using GEs in English?
 - If yes
 - Which forms? Why do you think they use them?
- What do you think about using GEs when you speak in English?
- What do you think about other people using GEs from the viewpoint of GEs' use in social interaction?
- Do you use spoken English grammar when you speak in English?
 - If yes
 - What forms? Why do you use them? When do you use them? In what context?
 - If not or seldom
 - Are there any reasons why you don't use them?
- Are you aware of other people using spoken English grammar?
- Have you heard someone using spoken English grammar in English?
 - If yes
 - Which forms? Why do you think they use them?
- What do you think about using spoken English grammar when you speak in English?
- What do you think about other people using spoken English grammar from the viewpoint of the use of spoken English grammar in social interaction?

Topic 2 Japanese language teachers' views of JUEs use of GEs: What do Japanese language teachers think about teaching GEs to JUEs?

Questions

- What do you think about teaching GEs to your students in classes?
- What do you think about teaching spoken English grammar to your students in classes?

Topic 3 Japanese language teachers' views of JUEs' use of GEs in speaking tests: What do Japanese language teachers think about Japanese examinees' using GEs in speaking tests?

Questions

- What do you think about Japanese students' using GEs in speaking tests?
- Do you think that Japanese students use GEs in speaking tests?

Appendix 4

Map of SST bands and other test bands

¹ Score relevance between SST and TOEIC		² Mapping TOEIC on the CEF		³ Mapping IELTS on the CEF	
SST	TOEIC	TOEIC	CEF	IELTS	CEF
9	942	945	C1	7.0-	C2
8	865			6.0-7.0	C1
7	788	785	B2		
6	711			5.0-6.0	B2
5	633				
4	556	550	B1	4.0	B1
3	479				
2	402			3.0	A2
1	325				

¹ Average of TOEIC scores at each SST level. Data collected from February 1998 to August 2004. (Alc Press Inc., 2012a)

² Mapping the TOEIC listening and reading total on the Common European Framework of Reference (Alc Press Inc., 2012a)

³ Relationships between the IELTS score bands and the levels of the Common European Framework of Reference. (Educational Testing Service, 2013)

Appendix 5

Bio data of the examinees in the NICT JLE Corpus

Generations

Age	Females	Males
0-10	0	0
11-20	134	125
21-30	178	269
31-40	135	146
41-50	64	47
51-60	29	8
61-70	7	2
71-	0	0
no answer	91	46
Total	638	643

Sexes

	Lower	Intermediate	Higher
Females	73 (28.1%)	438 (51.7%)	127 (73.4%)
Males	187 (71.9%)	410 (48.3%)	46 (26.6%)
Total	260 (100%)	848 (100%)	173 (100%)

Periods of living overseas

	Lower	Intermediate	Higher	Total
Not answered	140 (53.8%)	349 (41.2%)	54 (31.2%)	543 (42.4%)
Answered	120 (46.2%)	499 (58.8%)	119 (68.8%)	738 (57.6%)
Less than one month	106 (40.8%)	295 (34.8%)	9 (5.2%)	410 (32.0%)
Between 1 to 12 months	9 (3.5%)	135 (15.9%)	17 (9.8%)	161 (12.6%)
More than one year	5 (1.9%)	69 (8.1%)	93 (53.8%)	167 (13.0%)
Total	260	848	173	1281